TEACHER'S COLLEGE RECORD

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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MAY 1956

TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD VOL. 57, NO. 8, MAY, 1956

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD is issued eight times a year, monthly except June, July, August, and September. The subscription price is $3.00 per year; foreign postage, 50 cents. Single issues are sold at 45 cents each. Publication offices, 1407 Sherwood Avenue, Richmond, Va., and 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, N.Y. Editorial and general offices at the latter address. Printed in the United States of America. Second-class mail privileges authorized at Richmond, Virginia. Copyright 1956, by Teachers College, Columbia University.

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VOL. 57, NO. 8 MAY 1956

TEACHERS COLLEGE
RECORD

The Nature and Nurture of Early Adolescents*

MELVIN W. BARNES

ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, OKLAHOMA CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

IN her book *Beyond the Hugry Country* Stinetorf tells of a tribal ceremony in the Congo known as The Death of the Striplings. On this occasion adolescent boys are rounded up for an initiation school of a few days' duration which confers on them the status of adults.

The evening before the "budding men" disappeared into the jungle, I walked down the street with a procession of other mothers. The hair on their usually beautifully combed heads was deliberately tousled. Their neat, one-piece, wrap-around garments were gone and I could scarcely believe the tatters in which they were now clothed. Each carried in her hand a gourd filled with palm wine, or banana beer, or strips of celery hearts, or roasted ground nuts or some other delicacy. . . . Each held her gourdful of delicacies out for whoever might wish to sip of it or dip his fingers into it. . . . The celebration, I learned later, was called "The Death of the Striplings". . . . Periodically, the women would break out into the most exaggerated pretenses of grief. One of the women was asked, "Why are you wailing?"

Her pretended grief broke off instantly and there was only pride in her voice as she answered, "This is the night of the death of the striplings. We mothers are losing our little boys tonight. We will never cuddle and caress or punish them again. When they return to us, they will be men, and arrogant, and our masters."[1]

Early adolescents usually create confused feelings in parents. Has anyone who ever worked in a junior high school not heard a parent say, "I don't know what's come over junior. Just this year he seems to be getting away from me"?

Recently a class of sixth-grade children were visiting a junior high school.

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[1] Louise A. Stinetorf, *Beyond the Hungry Country* (New York, Lippincott, 1954), pp. 288-89.

While their mothers talked in the school cafeteria the children enjoyed the run of the building. Having finished their exploration, they were coming back to the adult group. As one boy approached his mother, she put out her arm and laid it across his shoulder. To her surprise her son ducked and wheeled away from her in disgust. She exclaimed, "Why just yesterday over in his sixth-grade room, he came up and put his arm around *me*."

ADOLESCENCE AND THE CULTURE

In the Congo adulthood arrives swiftly, but in America the transition to adult status is prolonged from a very few years to a decade or more. By extending the dependency state our culture produces certain problems. Delinquency is one. Such large numbers of adolescents break out in intense rebellion against adult society that in many minds adolescence is identified with delinquent behavior. Some carry into adulthood a marked immaturity which may well be the cause of maladjustments such as those often leading to divorce.

Anywhere in the world adolescence is largely what the culture makes it. While the influence of biological changes cannot be ignored, too often we fall into the error of underrating cultural factors. Margaret Mead's studies of Samoan adolescence are so frequently cited because they challenge many easy assumptions about the predictability of adolescent behavior.

We know now that the age which the culture emphasizes varies widely. Biological adolescence may have little relationship to social adolescence. The age at which puberty is recognized is conditioned by the demand that the society makes upon the adult, and the symbols of adulthood vary as widely as the culture itself. In a culture that pays little attention to biological puberty the fact apparently takes on minor importance for the individual or society. The physical fact may even go by largely unnoticed.

Again, the culture may use very different tactics in handling adolescence of boys from those used with girls. Ceremonial initiations are usually more heavily emphasized for boys than for girls.

In cultures where adult roles are rigidly set, adolescent behavior automatically fits the prescribed pattern. Anthropological studies in many cultures have emphasized this simple fact.[2] Adolescence in America is complicated by our open-class social system. Social mobility is high. Our institutions, including the public school, favor social shift and change. This despite certain barriers such as prejudice and social class boundaries.

Adolescent behavior in the United States differs only slightly from that in European countries because cultural differences are not very pronounced. In fact, interviews with exchange students in American high schools reveal many similarities between adolescent status and behavior in their homelands and that in America. Such differences as are found chiefly concern the restrictions imposed by parental authority and the range of responsible behavior, and even these differences are diminishing. Deep-set traditions and local controls are passing rapidly, not only in this country but all around the world, a change which presents problems to youth and adults alike. Patterns set by the primary family group are becoming less rigid as we move deeper into an age of change and invention.

This is one of the commonest observations on the world today. Toynbee says,

[2] Ruth Benedict, *Patterns of Culture* (New York, Houghton-Mifflin, 1934).

> Today for the first time in history, the same thing is happening to Mankind as a whole as once happened to the Aztecs and to the Incas, for example, when the Spaniards suddenly burst upon them in the sixteenth century. Today, for the first time, the whole world is having, within a single lifetime, to digest a greater revolution than is perhaps possible within just one single lifetime. . . . This current revolution is a worldwide revolution; and, all over the world it is taking place not merely on the political surface of life; this revolution is penetrating to the cultural and religious depths.[3]

We might note in passing that the Chinese subcultures in the United States show practically no juvenile delinquency problem. This may be because the family unit is somehow different from the typical American home. American living may be more materialistic, characterized by more anxiety from personal striving, and less community-centered.

THE AGE OF CHANGE

We have no choice about living in a world of change, and the pace of change is accelerating. Urbanization and social mobility are splitting life into more discrete parts. Landis refers to what is happening to us as the "segmentation of social experience."[4]

People are living beyond their depth socially. There is a thrust in the direction of more valued social zones and climates. Many who were born into humble life-situations are able to lift themselves through education and ambition to higher social planes. The public school and the availability of higher education play an important part in promoting this upward mobility. In almost every community there are different kinds of residential areas. Each family follows characteristic patterns or life-styles. Each has its own social reputation and position. As a usual thing, most of the children, regardless of their families' social status attend the public school. In the school some semblance of the social rankings of the community is often discernible.

Transition to adolescence places boys and girls in a new peer culture. Acceptance by age-mates grows in importance. It is a common experience in junior high school for children from lower-status families to gain the approval of middle-class children. As the social shift takes place, lower-class pupils who do not make the social grade are the ones who are likely to leave school before graduation, while the accepted ones, who are finding new values and new patterns of behaving, are quite likely to graduate.[5]

The task of today's school has to be seen as something more than giving youth selected items from the cultural heritage "to learn." Many youth in our schools today are caught between the compulsory attendance law and an information-centered, skill-centered program made up of what middle-class youth "need to know." Living in an age of change requires experience in solving problems. Whatever the future holds for them, our children will have to combine their knowledge to find solutions to the problems of this rapidly shrinking planet.

In this age of change, adolescents, with the rest of us, inherit the problems that change creates. The adolescent himself may be changing in some respects. He is taller and heavier than his father was at

[3] Arnold Toynbee, "New Vistas for the Historian," *The Saturday Review*, January 7, 1956, p. 63.

[4] Paul H. Landis, "Living with Change," *Journal of the American Association of University Women* (January, 1956), Vol. 49, No. 2, pp. 75-76.

[5] Carson McGuire and Rodney A. Clark, "Age-Mate Acceptance and Indices of Peer Status," *Child Development*, XIII (June, 1952), 141-54.

his age, probably because he has a better balanced diet. He is more able, he will stay in school longer, and he is maturing faster physically and socially. He goes out on dates younger, often at age twelve or thirteen. He will marry sooner.

The needs, concerns, interests, and abilities of adolescents are changing. In the classroom they amaze teachers by their capacity for "multiple-attention." Parents are nonplussed by their children's ability to do homework while the radio or TV blares forth. They are responsive to a wider, more stimulating, and much more insistent environment.

BILLIONS OF NEIGHBORS

Through the media of TV and the great news agencies, today's children are looking in on their two and one-half billion neighbors around the world. They know people who regularly visit the remote corners of earth. There is an increasing awareness of the world's peoples and their problems—the struggles of other nations to achieve freedom, find food, overcome disease, and learn the ways of democracy. In our current world, peoples are being drawn into ever-closer association and interdependence. Whether we are learning to like one another more or less, we are at least becoming aware of the total human family in a new way. World understanding becomes a compelling educational aim.[6]

Seventh-grade boys and girls in Oklahoma City junior high schools are communicating with boys and girls of their ages in many parts of the world. During recent months they have been finding out about the problems of growing up in lands and cultures different from theirs—this as a means to better understanding and handling of their own developmental tasks.

As friends abroad have responded with letters, narratives, recordings, photographs, art work, and other materials, interesting identities and contrasts between cultures have been revealed. Similarities are most striking. Basically, problems of achieving maturity are very much alike the world over—just as the anthropologists have been saying.

Children in other societies usually meet their problems in much the same ways that our children do, and ask much the same questions about us that we ask about them. We conclude that children of all lands today have common concerns about parental rules and controls, boys' and girls' roles, vocational choices, school achievement, spending money, becoming independent, and the time they have to get in at night.

All the evidence shows that rigidity of customs and cultures is passing. Firsthand reports from such places as the Sudan and Ecuador inform us that youth in the native villages are abandoning tribal life for the lure of the towns. Nobody expects them to return to the bush village way of life. Some of them are dropouts from recently established schools in those areas.

SPOTLIGHT ON ADOLESCENCE

In our own society adolescence has probably been more widely studied and discussed than any other phase of the life span. We have psychological studies galore. No brief treatment of early adolescence could bring together more than a small fraction of what research has to say. Many summaries of the findings have been made.[7]

Ages twelve to fifteen are popularly

[6] Ralph C. Preston, *Teaching World Understanding* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1955), Chapter 3.

[7] Kimball Wiles, "The Educational Program: Adolescence," *Review of Educational Research*, XXIV, No. 1 (February, 1954).

known as the great transition stage of life. The characteristic biological changes are obvious. Unevenness in rates of growth produce a strange assortment of shapes and sizes. There is considerable evidence to suggest that mental growth during this span is often inconsistent with its earlier pattern. In the junior high school some boys and girls coast along mentally instead of making steady upward growth. Curves of mental development can be as varied as those of physical growth. Thus, it is an age of differences and of differentiation and variability. Abilities, interests, concerns, and problems fan out into new realms.

At present there is much concern about the educational task of developing a self-concept.[8] Teaching practice reflects this concern. We see primary grade pupils making booklets entitled "Myself." These commonly contain such exhibits as a photograph, a fingerprint, a footprint, a wisp of hair, and a self-portrait.

Nobody is born with a concept of self. The self is a social product based on maturation. The infant gradually learns the parts of his body. He finds he has a name of his own. He becomes aware of himself as an influence on others and of them as an influence on him. He extends his perceptions as he interacts with agemates. By the time he reaches puberty he is a member of various sub-societies formed by home, school, friends, and groups restricted to one sex. Each group has its norms, each association conditions attitudes. Conflicting group identifications may produce emotional breakdown.[9]

[8] Arthur T. Jersild, *In Search of Self* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

[9] M. Sherif and H. Cantril, *The Psychology of Ego Involvements*, Chapter 8, "The Re-formation of the Ego in Adolescence" (New York, John Wiley and Sons).

In the early stages of adolescence the child is confronted with all of the expectations, requirements, and norms connected with learning the adult masculine and feminine roles. Our present society deprives many children of the means of meeting these basic needs. School people are constantly pressed to find ways in which community agencies can compensate for the deficiencies of the adult influence at home.

Normally, the quality of relationships at home and school, the feelings between parent and child, the degree of identification with various persons combine to give the maturing personality his concept of himself. In this development, teachers play a large part. If a teacher thoughtlessly lets a pupil get the impression that he, the pupil, is stupid, he will soon see himself as a stupid person. Teachers are powerful determiners of the self-concept.[10]

EGOLESS CHILDREN

As we study school dropouts and the chronic attendance problems we find larger numbers of pupils whose development in the role-concept has been thwarted or arrested. Usually these are children who are growing up in an atmosphere almost devoid of adult influence and control. Certain forces in our society are operating to remove adult support and guidance too early from many children. The effects of this removal show up in the beginning teen years and earlier, as the child encounters a host of psychological and social expectations that he seldom understands.

Several studies of junior high school children in Oklahoma City reveal a spe-

[10] Arthur W. Combs, "How Should We Look at Levels from Democratic Practices?" *Childhood Education*, XXXII, No. 4 (December, 1955), p. 161.

cies of child that we are calling "egoless." He operates on impulse. He has little foresight and no realistic long-range goals. He is lacking in social conscience, has little feeling of responsibility toward others, and no self-image or insight. Characteristically, these children come from homes where parental guidance and control have been lacking. Boys are more often handicapped than girls because the missing influence is more frequently that of the father.

Many children, both boys and girls, are being referred to school psychologists today because they have no vital contact with a father. Even though the father may still live with his family, the relationship to him is bland and ineffectual.

Many fathers today tend to see their role as little more than that of family breadwinner. They bring in the money with which to support the family, but fail to exercise their paternal role in relation to the guidance of their children. As one result, we have the matriarchal type of home. Articles in homemaking magazines feature the executive, career-type of housewife. Engineering techniques, time and motion studies, are applied to kitchen operations. Counts of foot mileage are made. These seem to reflect a matriarchal tendency in family life.

A form of delinquency is prevalent in the home situation where the father role is missing. The boys are characteristically "zooty" in their grooming. They affect ducktail haircuts and clothes to match. Paradoxically, they exhibit a brand of toughness that is labeled masculine on TV and in the movies and comics. In projective tests these children draw the male figure as a broad-shouldered, crewcut, Steve Canyonesque character which they resemble not at all.

They are characteristically cold or neutral toward the father of the family and callous to the effect of their acts on others. They see nothing wrong with stealing cars or with unprovoked attacks on others. They desire to be noticed and may carry newspaper clippings of their publicized misdeeds.

These children live in the present. Are they planning to go to college? "Sure, I'm going to be an engineer!" But there is no disposition to stay in school, no view of reality.

We are speaking, of course, of a minority of homes and youth, but a minority that percentage-wise is almost certainly increasing. For most early adolescents the American family is still the basic factor in life and parents come first with them.

FAMILY PRIORITY

A national survey of boys of ages fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen was recently conducted by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan. By an interview technique using "open-ended" questions a nation-wide sample of boys was studied. (A similar study of girls is projected.) The results show that the adult strivings of the boys often found satisfactions in the family. Their experimentation with responsibility frequently was done in the family setting. When asked to name an adult person they hoped to emulate in adulthood, a majority of these boys named a family member.

This sampling of boys found that the adult qualities most valued ("responsibility for a job and skill in dealing with social reality") were worked out largely in the family sphere.

The authors of the survey say,

> Family relationships hold undisputed priority in most boys' lives. The majority feel that a friend could never be as close as family members. In guiding their own behavior most boys say they would weigh their par-

ents' opinions more heavily than those of friends. . . .

These data bespeak a rather heavy dependence on parent standards among boys this age. To probe the question of dependence further, we asked a series of questions about parental rules—why parents make them, what life would be like without them, and when one might break them. Two general conclusions can be drawn from responses: first, most boys clearly have respect for parental authority; and second, they do not yet have very secure internal standards for guiding their own behavior.[11]

AGE-MATES AND ROLES

Second to his family, the early adolescent ranks peer relations. This relation is age-graded. As adolescents grow older they come under greater influence from age-mates and the family influence recedes. By the time they reach ninth or tenth grade, peer orientation is quite marked.

The public school has hardly scratched the surface of the possibilities for study of the school as an adolescent sub-society. By and large we are still in the sociogram stage of study of the phenomena of the school sub-society.

Carson McGuire and associates have broken new ground in their studies of adolescent role behaviors and age-mate acceptance. They are studying the phenomena of affiliation and avoidance by which adolescents place one another in clearly defined status relationships. They found the following "role assignments" in the school society:

Wheels. Persons who sort of "make the wheels go round." They are boys and girls who tend to run things wherever they are. "They're tops."

Brains. Persons who . . . seem to get most of their ideas from books. They tend to do what older people want.

Average Kids. Persons who are sort of "average ones." Outside of school they run around quite a bit. Some of them are in sports.

Mice. Persons who are often left out or just not noticed. People think of them as "inoffensive ones."

Outcasts. Persons who are sort of "wild ones." They could get into trouble. Some people call them "delinquent."

Drips and Dopes. Persons who are "left out" of things. They tend to make you uncomfortable.[12]

The role of "brain" is more frequently assigned to girls than to boys. Boys designated as "brains" have a lower peer status value than the "wheels." Some girl "brains" have relatively low peer status. Interestingly enough, in different age-mate societies and in different years, role assignments were found to be made on a different basis. "Mice" roles are assigned to persons of medium peer status value. The "wild one" designations are related to low peer status. Restraint, the capacity to take note of the consequences of one's actions, seems to be associated with high peer status. It is characteristic of "wheels" and lacking in the "wild ones."

Peer status shows a tendency to change in school. Adolescent society, like adult society, possesses a good deal of mobility.

McGuire found that girls are more adult-oriented than boys. One might guess that accelerated maturation and closer association with mothers are reasons. Adult-orientation seems associated with the "brain" role in school society.

THWARTED GROWTH

One of the commonest ways to harm children is to expect them to grow up too

[11] Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, "A Study of Adolescent Boys," p. 6. A mimeographed summary of the study.
Stephen B. Withey, "What Boys See as Their Problems." *Education*, Vol. 76, No. 4 (December, 1955), pp. 210-13.

[12] Carson McGuire and others, "Adolescent Role Behavior and Age-Mate Acceptance." Paper read at a meeting of the Southwestern Psychological Association in Dallas, April 1954.

fast. Parents and teachers sometimes hinder growth by failure to exert appropriate influence and to adapt it to the changing needs of youth. We cannot expect a child to be a little adult. Many of today's adults never had a chance to be little children. We can never blame a child for being childish. He needs the opportunity for the sake of growth.

As children grow their needs change. Of course adolescents need parents, but they need them in a different way from children. Some adults have such respect for adolescents' striving for independence that they fail to supply the necessary guidance. Parents often seem to be confused over their roles in this respect. It is somehow felt that a laissez-faire kind of supervision entails less risk of damaging the youth than an authoritarian kind and that there is no better alternative.

Clinicians are concerned about the tendency of some adolescents to behave in ways having a quality of pseudo-maturity. It is not uncommon today to find a high degree of steady dating even among junior high school youth. In some senior high schools 15 to 20 per cent of the graduating classes are married. One clinician writes,

> It seems proper for a parent to be concerned that a son or daughter be able to dance at sixteen. With this in mind we can understand parents wishing to have fifteen-year-old high schoolers taught social dancing. But unfortunately the pressure doesn't end here. Elementary school principals report that they are being pushed by parents' groups to teach social dancing to eleven- or ten-year-olds. No matter how we try to stretch their squeaking ego, this age group is definitely not ready for this kind of involvement.[13]

A study of the ways in which society thwarts and twists adolescent social growth would reveal some reasons for delinquent behavior. Car-stealing, for example, is a favorite pastime of some early adolescents. Driving a car of one's own is one of the most obvious symbols of maturity in our society. In one correctional institution 80 per cent of the adolescent boys serving time had been committed for the offense of stealing a car and driving it across a state line.

A study of the misbehavior of 500 children ages seven to sixteen apprehended by police in one city showed that at age twelve there was a sudden increase in the number of offenses. The fourteen- and fifteen-year-old group exceeded all other age groups in total apprehensions. After age fifteen, the number of apprehensions decreased. More than one-half the offenders were in grades seven, eight, and nine. Conspicuous among offenses committed were those of rebellion against adults.[14]

SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Research is needed on interpersonal relations in schools. We know a good deal about the effect on pupils of teaching methods and teachers' personalities. That school atmospheres vary in mysterious ways is undeniable, but we lack studies that take into account *all* the relationships in a school.

If parents are sometimes confused about the meaning and application of democracy, just so teachers and school administrators can be. In staff planning and in the classroom we sometimes see a weird mixture of laissez-faire and authoritarian philosophy and techniques. The human effects are not so very different. Tension and low morale develop as quickly from one as from the other. Perhaps it is safe to say that laissez-faire prac-

[13] Ralph D. Rabinovitch, "Our Adolescents and Their World," *The English Journal*, XLIV, No. 5 (May, 1955), p. 264.

[14] Mildred Helm Hurd, "Some Characteristics of 500 Children Apprehended by Oklahoma City Police." An unpublished thesis.

tices are much more prevalent than authoritarian. There is no comfort in such a conclusion. Cliques to combat insecurity arise in the laissez-faire setting as quickly as in the autocratic. If the administrator is unclear in his own mind regarding the values and practice of democratic leadership, the teachers and pupils are likely to be also. The quality of living in a school inevitably reflects the leader's values.

Does too much of our junior high school planning have reference to what is ahead? The junior high school years are between the intermediate grades and the senior high school. Relations in both directions are important. In seventh grade we give general art, general music, and general mathematics. The student may be reintroduced to the old subject matter. "Exploration" is no fun unless the territory is new. The seventh-grader has already had six years of the general subjects and will be bored unless his horizons are extended—unless he gets hold of new, real problems to work on.

Certain surveys show that students often look back on seventh grade as their hardest year in school. What kind of continuity in the school program is needed? Much effort has been spent on subject-matter articulation, but that apparently has not borne much fruit.

> It is partly because studies in articulation have for the most part been restricted to subject matter articulation that the problem of articulation continues to exist.[14]

In many school systems the elementary, junior high school, and senior high plan their programs independently. Too few of us recognize in practice that the learner's school life is one piece and should be integrated under unified leadership, planning, and philosophy. The increasing concern for curriculum development overarching the whole span from kindergarten to twelfth grade is promising.

One must live and work with adolescents to understand and appreciate how reasonable and idealistic they really are. What they say may not reveal their true values as clearly as what they do. To the perceptive observer they have many ways of telling what they are really like.

The following are instances of behavior of adolescents and younger children over a short period of time in a city school system. These could be duplicated in any other American city.

A sophomore girl died of cancer. Her classmates launched a drive to raise money for a memorial to her. The plan soon became known as "The Million Penny Round-up." When the million pennies were collected the memorial was built with half the money and the balance was donated to cancer research.

A junior boy was out of school for a long period while he underwent a series of operations. His return to school depended on his getting an expensive wheelchair. To buy the chair his classmates set aside a special day for earning money. They bought the chair.

Students in that school built a house for a family made homeless by a fire. Under the lead of the vocational carpentry class, and with a little help from parents, they built the house completely and helped the family move in.

Would the values that adults hold lead to the solutions that the children found?

[14] Esther Lloyd-Jones and Margaret Ruth Smith, *Student Personnel Work at Deeper Teaching* (New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954), p. 33.

History and Development of the Junior High School*

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THE junior high school movement, in tune with the era of power steering, directional signals, and jet propulsion, is proceeding at the highest speed since its inception, in the early 1900's. Its impact on our educational programs is powerful. Evidence of this force is on all sides. Major educational institutions are devoting funds, personnel, and time to research and reporting on the status of these grades that have formed a nebulous educational interlude between the elementary school and the high school. At the February, 1955 convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, numerous study groups considered problems definitely dealing with the junior high school. The United States Office of Education has pointed up the junior high school growth in a publication entitled *Junior High School Facts* [15]. The United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, through the Office of Education, sponsored a National Conference on Junior High Schools in February, 1955, and reported the results of this conference in its publication *Strengths and Weaknesses of the Junior High School* [16]. The Committee on Junior High School Education of the National Association of Secondary School Principals has prepared a report entitled "The Daily Schedule in 1250 Junior High Schools" for publication in the May, 1956 Bulletin of the NASSP [14] which summarizes a comprehensive survey made by that group. Numerous professional magazine articles and bulletins are reporting on administrative practices and subject-matter areas pertaining to the junior high school, and more and more local organizations of teachers and administrators are being formed to discuss and evaluate practices and procedures that are being tried out in grades seven, eight, and nine.

These significant items symbolize the nation-wide interest of educators in the programs for early adolescents, and reflect the concern and active interest of lay people toward the education of young people who are approaching senior high school age.

Whether or not the junior high school is "here to stay" is not necessarily an issue at this point. It is more important to recognize that this educational unit has attained significant status during the past half century, and that its educational policies will have a profound effect on all secondary education during the years to come. An examination of its develop-

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ment will serve to focus on the reasons for its being, and on its potentialities. No graphs, tables, or other statistics are included here.

The junior high school, for purposes of this discussion, is an American public school consisting of grades seven, eight, and nine, with an administration and staff of its own. It may be housed in a separate building, or may share a building or facilities with other grades. In any event, if it does share such facilities, it remains an identifiable entity.

The junior high school fits into a traditional grade pattern of six grades in the elementary school, three grades in the junior high school, and three grades in the high school. This organization is commonly known as a 6–3–3 plan, as compared with an 8–4 plan, which would have an eight-grade elementary school and a four-year high school. These plans are not exclusive, for variations such as 6–6 and 6–2–4 plans are not uncommon.

The pupils who attend the junior high school may be a cross section of the adolescent community, but all come within the age range eleven to sixteen, with relatively few at the extremes. It is assumed that, while all of these pupils are adolescents, there is considerable overlapping from grade to grade in their degree of maturation.

BASIS FOR CONCERN

The junior high school has been a controversial institution from its beginning, about 1900. Although numerous reasons were brought forth to justify the establishment of such a school, it is apparent that in many cases it was established, not because of any strong and proved educational values, but as an expedient, usually to solve a housing problem; and in many cases because it was "the thing to do" in educational circles amidst the publicity attending this new cure-all for the ills of the traditional 8–4 grade organization.

After a more or less dormant period from 1920 to 1940, there is a new and lively interest in the junior high school and its purpose and worth in an educational program. This interest appears to get its impetus from several sources, a few of which are noted here.

First, the increasing school population is being felt at the secondary school level, and school boards are faced with the matter of providing new buildings. Will they be new junior high school buildings, or will they be new high schools, with grades 7–9 inheriting the old facilities? If they are new junior high schools, what will they contain in the way of facilities which will meet the needs of the pupils? What are these needs? Can a well-organized *new* junior high school bring prestige to the community to a degree comparable to a *new* high school?

Second, recent popular articles on juvenile delinquency are tending to focus the public eye on junior high schools as well as high schools. One result of this emphasis is a popular demand for improved facilities and programs.

Third, more complete knowledge about adolescents which has been gathered during the past forty years has provided information about the needs of these children and about possible ways to meet them. This is causing much educational experimentation and curriculum reorganization, and is challenging present practices in the junior high schools.

Fourth, many teachers who are working with grades 7–9 are not satisfied with the current program of the junior high school and point to persistent behavior problems and to frequent low-level achievement as evidence of ineffectiveness. Many still look upon grades seven

and eight as an extension of the elementary school and grade nine as a preview of high school, raising the question whether education *actually* has moved away from the 8–4 school plan.

Fifth, probably because of the stimulation of the other factors, teacher-training institutions are offering more opportunities for trainees to learn about adolescents and the junior high school through formal courses, workshops, and so forth.

In view of this renewed interest, it appears desirable to re-examine the early claims for the junior high school and to determine whether or not it has met the initial challenges and perhaps gone beyond them to make even more significant contributions to the education of adolescents.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND FOR CURRENT PRACTICES

By the end of the ninteenth century the 8–4 plan was the predominant form of school organization. Gruhn and Douglass [6] point out these two important conclusions from their study of the development of this plan.

> First, there is no evidence that the eight-year elementary school and the four-year high school were influenced in their origin and early development by any recognition of the nature of the physical and psychological growth of children.
>
> Second, the elementary and secondary schools began as two entirely separate institutions; furthermore, throughout much of their early history there was little or no attempt to bring about satisfactory articulation between them.

By 1890 much dissatisfaction with the 8–4 plan was being expressed by educators, especially college and university representatives. Several groups studied the problems—the Committee of Ten (1893), the Committee of Fifteen (1895), the Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1899), the Chicago University Conferences (1902), the Committees on Six-year Courses, the Committee on Economy of Time in Education (1907) —and recommended various grade and curriculum reorganizations. The 6–6 plan gained considerable professional support during this period.

It is interesting to note that until 1910 no mention of an intermediate school was made by various study groups or prominent educators. However, several school systems had already introduced the 6–3–3 plan, and in view of this development Gruhn and Douglass [6] conclude that "the plan of grade reorganization which included the junior high school was not a direct outcome of the recommendations of any of the committees on reorganization." These authors point out, however, that the basic philosophy and practices in the early junior high were the outgrowth of the earlier study committees, even though the actual form of grade reorganization did not originate with any of those committees.

The goals and objectives of the first junior high schools which grew out of the 8–4 reorganization movement were essentially these: to bring about economy of time in the total elementary–secondary school program; to provide an educational program designed for adolescents; to provide closer articulation between elementary and secondary school; to bring about better retention of pupils through grade 9; to enable an earlier differentiation of instruction to suit the needs, interests, and capacities of individual pupils.

The broad values listed are stated in terms of symptoms of ineffectiveness of the 8–4 organization rather than in a clearly defined action program for the newly created institution.

Noar [12] lists these basic principles

on which the junior high school was founded:

(1) *Articulation*—helping children to go from elementary school through junior high school with as little difficulty as possible. (2) *Exploration*—giving young teen-agers a chance to find out through brief experiences what some of the high school courses were like, with the expectation that this would help them to choose their senior high school courses more wisely. (3) *Educational Guidance*—helping pupils to choose from among elective subjects offered in the junior, and later the senior high school. (4) *Vocational Guidance*—helping pupils to make decisions about jobs and careers. (5) *Activity*—providing social and athletic experiences and giving the students a chance to participate in administration and control of the school. These activities were organized into an "extra-curricular program" of clubs. (6) *Time-saving*—permitting bright students to skip a semester and thus to specialize earlier and enter senior high school sooner.

As early in the junior high school movement as 1928, the National Education Association published a Research Bulletin [4] devoted to this "new venture in public education." This forward-looking publication recognized that the new school was in a developmental stage and cautioned against standardization at that time. It pointed out, too, that "changing the habitat, erecting a new building and calling it a junior high school does not make it one. Neither is a junior high school merely a regrouping of some of the old elementary and high school grades. . . . A school is a junior high school to the extent to which its courses of study and administration conform to the needs of adolescent youth."

This early Research Bulletin of the National Education Association relies upon Koos [11] to a great extent in stating functions peculiar to the junior high school. These may be summarized as follows:

1. Realizing a democratic school system through retention of pupils, economy of time, recognition of individual differences, exploration and guidance, and pre-vocational guidance.
2. Adaption of the school to the nature of the adolescent child.
3. Providing conditions for better teaching through specialization on the part of teachers.
4. Securing better scholarship.
5. Improving the disciplinary situation and socializing opportunities under the supervision of more than one teacher during the day.

The purposes and goals of the early junior high school stated by Koos, Gruhn, Douglass, and Noar represent the functions most commonly given in the literature. In general, they have the following characteristics which make the avowed purposes difficult to interpret in terms of actual values coming from the 6–3–3 plan:

They are broad generalizations, even though the complete statements often have exploratory and clarifying material not given here.

They tend to be based upon overcoming deficiencies of the 8–4 plan, rather than upon any sound thesis that a 6–3–3 rearrangement has advantages.

They are hypothetical to a high degree, primarily because the junior high school had not been in operation and because certain phases of the recommendations, especially those bearing upon guidance, behavior of adolescents, and articulation were in relatively early stages of study.

Most of the statements are given in terms of organization rather than of actual values to the individual pupil.

Each statement would appear to have equal force at every grade level, with the exception of statements that refer specifically to "the adolescent." Even in those cases, if "the pupil" were substituted, the statement could apply to all parts of the school.

There appears to be a basic assumption that the organization and programs in grades 1-6 and 10-12 are essentially sound, and that grades 7-9 should be so ordered that pupils can make the transition from the early grades to the completely different high school with a minimum of difficulty. There is no implication, in the earlier literature at least, that the nature of the elementary or senior high school programs made it difficult to provide for easy articulation with the junior high school; or that these programs contributed to many of the difficulties attributed to grades 7-9; or that a developmental program from grades 1-8 might be planned in such a manner that there would be no abrupt change in methods, facilities, and/or organization at any point, and especially at grades 6-7 and 9-10.

CURRENT TRENDS IN THE FORMULATION OF OBJECTIVES

Granting that many of the first junior high schools were expedient in nature and developed because of dissatisfaction with earlier organization plans, much constructive thinking has been given to the "in-between years" served by this school. Although organization and administration remain important factors, the tendency is to consider the operation of the school in terms of the values to the individual child.

Herriot, Sands, and Stauffacher [10], in discussing the history and objectives of junior high school education, point out the change in emphasis in this manner:

> Of the early, widely accepted functions, about the only one to disappear almost completely is the "retention of pupils," inasmuch as compulsory attendance laws quite generally exceed the usual junior high age in California and other states where junior high schools have been generally organized. Many other functions have been redirected or otherwise modified: economy of time, vocational exploration, guidance, individualization of instruction, exploration of interests and abilities, socialization. Some other concepts have been added, of which integration is the most significant: integration of learning outcomes and integration of the social group.

Current statements about the educational values of the junior high school tend to develop from three overlapping concepts: functions of the junior high school, the imperative needs of the junior high school youth, and developmental tasks peculiar to adolescents.

The functions, as stated by Douglass and Gruhn [6], represent a "revised statement of functions" based upon a detailed study of current practices and statements by educational leaders. These functions are a refinement of the earlier goals and objectives.

Herriot and others [10], after determining that "The Ten Imperative Needs of Youth" as developed by the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary School Principals were too broad for vital application to the junior high school, reformulated these needs in terms of the young adolescents of the junior high school, and stated them as the "Imperative Needs of Junior High School Youth."

While the "needs" given by Herriot overlap the early "goals" ideas and give due emphasis to health and basic academic skills, they tend to center upon the premise that "the junior high school offers exceptional opportunity for the blossoming social sense of young adolescents. If there is one emphasis that should characterize the junior high school more than any other, it is social and political democracy."

Alberty [1] discusses the developmental tasks concept in the chapter "Understanding the Adolescent," in analyzing needs of the adolescent. This con-

cept was popularized by Havighurst [7].

Under this theory every child has imposed upon him by his own biological nature and the society of which he is a part at various stages of development a series of tasks which he must learn to perform. They represent personal-social needs which must be met and, as such, may well represent to some degree a series of values or objectives at which education should aim.

ATTAINING STATED OBJECTIVES

It has already been noted that the earlier functions of the junior high school, with some modification, are still among the functions of the modern school, but that their meaning has been broadened and deepened by experience and by the study of the needs of pupils attending this school.

The "functions," "imperative needs," and "developmental tasks" presented in the previous section represent attempts to define more carefully the values which may develop from the modern junior high school. That these values are *goals* rather than *actualities* in most cases is true, but it would appear that if they were attained, our youth would be better equipped to meet the problems of present-day living and to make more valuable contributions to their own "happiness" as individuals and to that of all mankind.

The sum of these functions, needs, and tasks when applied to the curriculum for the adolescent would provide a program that would do much to develop attitudes of self-worth and respect for the individual and his place in a democratic society, and for the attainment of intellectual and social skills necessary to function adequately in that society. There is ample opportunity to provide experiences and promote a spirit of inquiry and scientific analysis of problems.

However, at this stage of development, there is relatively little evidence that the junior high school (the 6–3–3 plan) has demonstrated marked superiority over any plan, or that the newer objectives are being extensively incorporated into the junior high school.

Gruhn and Douglass [6] report that there is very little in the modest experimental evidence available to indicate that pupils educated under the 6–3–3 organization are superior to other pupils.

Alberty, in his presentation to the Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in 1955 [13], made these observations:

1. The junior high school, by and large, has failed to bridge the gap between the elementary school and the high school. In general, it has adopted the general curricular pattern of the high school—separate subjects taught by specialists, rather than the elementary school's more unified concept of the curriculum.

2. Only to a limited extent has it succeeded in providing for an experience-centered approach to learning. While the larger schools have provided exploratory experiences in the fine and applied arts, the central emphasis has continued to be the mastery of certain academic fields of knowledge. Extraclass activities have increased but mostly they are divorced from the regular work of the classroom.

3. While it has tended to increase the holding power, far too many students drop out at the earliest opportunity.

4. In many instances, the junior high school is merely an administrative device designed to facilitate the smooth running of the school machine.

5. While special guidance services seem to have increased under the impetus of the reorganization movement, these services have not become a part of the day-to-day activities of the school.

6. Only a small percentage of the junior high schools has moved in the direction of a unified, problem-centered program of general education, even though the desirability of such a program is recognized and

the procedures for developing it have been well known for at least twenty-five years.

LOOKING AHEAD

Essex and Spayde [5] take the stand that the junior high school is here to stay and point out that, actually, there are few opponents challenging the movement in theory and practice. They point to the growth of the junior high school movement, reiterate earlier claims for this type of school, and name newer practices, such as the use of the "core curriculum" and improved guidance programs. However, in none of the literature has it been shown that the use of the new practices and recent recognition of the concepts of the functions, needs, and tasks enumerated earlier have made the junior high school a significantly more effective educational unit than that of four decades ago.

This lack of proof is due chiefly to the difficulties involved in performing research in an area which is relatively new and unsettled, rather than to any actual failure of the junior high school. Many of the values which are claimed to develop better citizens, a more effective democracy, a more stable economy, a more secure individual and world population, and so forth cannot be measured adequately in terms of any present achievements, since the real test must await the results which will come when those who are educated in the modern junior high school have functioned in our society as adults. Pending that, estimates of effectiveness must be made in terms of the present apparent adjustment of pupils to their school and community.

Meanwhile, several very functional values of the junior high school can be recognized. Granting that, to a degree, they arise because of expediency and perhaps in self-defense, they are making an effective contribution to the educational program. These may be stated briefly as:

1. Providing for housing in communities where the population increase is reaching the secondary level. Many communities are facing the problem by constructing junior high school buildings with facilities designed to suit what appear to be the needs of an educational program for children between the ages of eleven and sixteen. This is a change from the policy of building a monumental new high school and installing the junior high school program in the former high school quarters. It should be recognized that lack of facilities frequently hindered the functioning of the junior high school in its designated role.

2. Stimulating further study of the functions of the junior high school and the needs of its pupils in an effort to plan a more effective curriculum. The functions, needs, and tasks enumerated earlier in this discussion are partial results of this effort, and it is hoped that implementation arising from research will bring the stated objectives to reality.

3. Encouraging teacher-training institutions to provide programs for prospective junior high school teachers, recognizing that these teachers must have special training for the educational program at this level.

Another indication of the worth of the junior high school is that the morale of its pupils appears to be good. Perhaps this stems from their feeling of having achieved a new status and from being recognized as more mature than elementary school pupils. Perhaps the increased freedom of movement and thought and the physical and social opportunities in the new school contribute to the generally enthusiastic acceptance of junior

high school. True, the exuberance, exercise of freedom, and attempts at independence frequently result in adjustment problems, but as teachers and administrators understand the significance of adolescent behavior and design a program to channel these drives into productive areas, many of the problem situations will decrease.

The lack of wide-scale or organized resistance to the junior high school, in spite of the many questions about its true worth, may be another piece of evidence that this school has value on the educational scene. Most of the efforts arising from the recognition of weaknesses at this level are directed toward making the junior high school "work" rather than toward abolishing it. On the fringe are a few people who advocate significant grade reorganization. There are some, for example, who favor abolishing grades seven and eight and adding two years of college to the twelve-year school program. Much of this reasoning is based upon European educational plans, appears to overlook the major element of mass education for *all* children in the United States, and pays little attention to the factors dealing with an enriched and suitable program for adolescents.

The trends in the junior high school appear to be toward performing the functions, meeting the imperative needs, and allowing for the performance of the developmental tasks already given. The movement is slow, owing to lack of facilities, trained personnel, and definitely stated philosophies—but there is movement.

Unfortunately, little if anything based on research and analysis is reported on the attainment of stated goals. Surveys of practices are common, statements of philosophy are frequent, and recommended future curricula can be found readily; but evaluations of programs in action are scarce.

Research on a functional, operational level is needed to determine whether there is any justification for a 6–3–3 organization other than to provide adequate housing. Until empirical evidence is available, statements of worth are academic and tend to result in an inbreeding of unevaluated ideas.

There are two alternatives, however, that are not so imposing as detailed research projects and that may be more realistic in terms of accomplishment for the educator who must cope with the problem from day to day in a school building. (1) Permit the present pattern of evaluation to continue on a more or less informal basis and retain practices that withstand the march of time. (2) Because in most schools experimentation of some kind is going on, place emphasis on more careful experimentation followed by honest evaluation in terms of pupil growth rather than on administrative expediency or "smoothness of operation" as a means of screening desirable from undesirable practices.

In any event, the improvement of the junior high school, and perhaps its very existence, will be dependent upon the scientific evaluation of its practices and the objective application of results.

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Organizing for Staff and Student Growth*

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THE junior high school comprises the first three or four years of secondary education, commonly grades 7 through 9. It was created because of the need of an organizational structure peculiarly adapted to educating early adolescents. For years before the first one was organized there was widespread dissatisfaction with the anachronistic 8-4 grade progression plan. The main reason for the success and rapid growth of the junior high school is the progress it has made in designing its organizational features in terms of the developmental needs of our younger youth and in terms of the purposes of secondary education in our society. The 6-3-3 plan thus became one of the first structural modifications in a different approach to teaching and learning.

Within any one school, organization is closer to being a generic than a specific term. There can be many types constructed by different criteria, each for a particular purpose. The creation of organizational plans to facilitate learning is the major responsibility of secondary school administration. But there has developed an alarming gap between present practice and the best we know. Within the last quarter century, many proposals have been advanced to close it. These have dealt mainly with rearrangement of the content of the existing program of studies. Very few have proposed redesigning organizational structure to make possible basic changes in program, to stimulate the creation of better approaches to the task of providing the best experiential gamuts for a particular group of children in a particular locale. The clear implication of this is a need for a design of organization adaptable enough to make real curriculum improvement possible and feasible.

ORGANIZING THE STAFF

The professional staff should devote the greater part of its time and effort to curriculum improvement. Curriculum improvement occurs only when the attributes of the end product come closer to the realization of the purposes for which the institution exists. The functional efficiency of the staff depends upon its operational patterns, which stem from the basic organizational concept. Therefore, the basis of staff organization must be in terms of the goals of the school if better education of adolescents is to be achieved.

The usual basis of staff organization found in our secondary schools conceives of education as a series of more or less unrelated processes. This concept stems from the outmoded line-and-staff pattern and from faculty and atomistic

* Dr. Skogsberg's continuing interest in purpose-related organization of the school is revealed in this article.

psychology. This pattern determines how people will work together.

The personnel interrelationships of the staff are set by this process-based[1] operational concept. Examination of secondary schools reveals subject-matter departments dominating the organization. Each one claims a vested interest in program planning. Teacher isolation within a subject-matter area is fostered. Specialists compete for status with other specialists. Fractionalization of subject-matter areas into narrower specialties, or separate departments, occurs as schools get larger, until we have such inexplicable phenomena as separate departments of French, Latin, Spanish, German, or even a separate one of American History. Heated arguments often occur about such questions as whether arithmetic should be in the commercial subjects or mathematics department. There is constant striving to make some departmental pet subject a requirement for all pupils, regardless of their personal needs or plans. Interdepartmental competition for the largest share of the time of the "best" pupils is keen. In this type of organization, subjects are continued in the curriculum long after they have lost their usefulness for pupils —classical Greek for example. Program improvement consists mainly of sequential rearrangement of traditional topics or the addition of new names and aims to old material. Pupils are forced into preconceived program patterns that too often are only very slightly related to their needs. Kind and degree of status differentiation of people by job title are stressed far beyond the point of usefulness in organization. The result is a hierarchical rigidity and an operational inflexibility that practically throttle adaptability.[2] Even worse, this process-based pattern of organization mistakes the means of education for its ends, characteristically almost completely ignoring the integrative phase of learning. And, to their discredit, so-called accrediting agencies with sonorous titles help to perpetuate this state of functional disorientation by solemnly measuring "educational temperatures" with process-calibrated thermometers, and, regrettably, paraphrasing process-oriented "evaluative criteria" and applying them as a measure of junior high school excellence.

To do what we know needs to be done about the secondary school program, staff operational patterns must be functionally relevant to the goals of the school, which are the purposes of secondary education in our society. Consequently, the primary, predominant basis of staff organization must be purpose, not process, if we are to attain our goals with a minimum waste of time and effort of those involved—the staff, the pupils, and the community. Happily, there is common agreement on what these purposes are. The five major ones can be stated as citizenship, home and family living, health, lifework, and guidance in the sense of the attainment of emotionally mature self-direction.

The 1955 White House Conference report on "What Should Our Schools Do?" shows this common agreement by stating these purposes in almost the same words. Therefore, since junior high schools are not so bound by tradition, conservatism,

[1] For a detailed analysis of bases of organization see:
Will French, "Postwar Schools Should Be Purpose Organized," *Teachers College Record*, April 1945.
Alfred H. Skogsberg, "Basing Staff Organization on Purpose," *Phi Delta Kappan*, March 1955.

[2] For a detailed explanation of adaptability inherent in organization see: Paul R. Mort, *Principles of School Administration* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946), p. 195.

college entrance requirements, Carnegie Units, or what have you as senior high schools seem to like to be, junior high schools at least need not be involved in perpetuating or picking up the long outmoded practice of a process-based staff organization, but can and should be purpose-based, much closer to the best we know.

This purpose-based staff organization is relatively simple to construct. The working subgroups of the staff are purpose committees not subject-matter departments. The experience and competencies of the staff are utilized differently. Each of these committees is charged with the responsibility of assessing the total school effort in terms of the purpose to be achieved. Each staff committee taps, as far as possible, the special competencies inherent in the staff pattern. Teachers trained in related arts, science, language arts, social science, health, and mathematics work together, motivated by an all-school problem. Thus, more of the full power of the staff potential is brought to bear on the major goals of the school. Subject-matter specialists, the "process experts," serve as consultants to the staff committees as needed to help to determine what each area of organized knowledge can contribute to problem solution and the best way to utilize it.

Committee decisions recommend action without specifying how it shall be achieved in the classroom. If, for example, the citizenship committee recommended that the level of reading skills be raised, the classroom teachers would choose the tactics and techniques to implement it. The teacher of mathematics would concern himself with the methodology of teaching the reading skills peculiar to mathematics, and so on with each of the other special areas. The committee decision is in a sense strategic, while that of the classroom teacher is tactical. Changes in what happens to pupils are thus more easily and more rapidly made. The staff committee chairmen and the subject specialists act as classroom consultants in planning the instructional program. Operation of this kind centers responsibility and delineates practice more efficiently.

The curriculum of the purpose-based school is dynamic. Initiating different series of experiences for special and common needs and for new demands is a responsibility of the whole staff. Individual pupil programs are frequently modified. Special provisions are more easily made for the most able pupils. The restrictions imposed by the chronological lockstep of the grade-a-year system can be thrown off without fear of the traditional specters of "skipping" or "acceleration" or "retardation." Decisions about the vertical and horizontal articulation of learning gamuts in relation to purposes foster the use of different types of curricular organizational devices for specific goals. Subject organization, core, unified studies, all can be used concurrently or consecutively for a long time or a short time to solve instructional problems. The responsibility, within the purpose organization, rests directly upon the entire professional staff to devise the most efficient means to satisfy an adequate, professional diagnosis of the situation. The rate of change in improvement is faster because the greater the understanding of more of the people concerned, the more rapid the necessary adaptations created.

The results of actual experience with practical operation of the more adaptable purposed-based staff organization are conclusive. They surpass theoretical expectations. The teacher actually becomes more of a diagnostician of educational needs of pupils and less of just a subject-

matter specialist. Classroom methodology and techniques are chosen as a result of the total diagnosis and are not dictated by the traditional internal organization of a separate subject discipline. More specific attention is given to the development of attitudes as foundations of behavior. Subject-matter departments have a minor role as subsidiary service groups.

The confusion of ends and means, so characteristic of a dominant base of process, is eliminated. The curriculum is formed around pupil needs determined culturally and psychologically. It is developed as a joint teacher-pupil-layman-administrator enterprise to achieve definite goals. It is treated as emerging, allowing for continuous evaluation and change influenced by the attributes of the end product. This evaluation and resultant modification comprise a learning experience, an integral part of instruction. Contrast this with a process-based evaluation, essentially based on fixed, often remote standards and on subject-matter memorization achievement, as well as on judgments emanating from, and in terms of, the security of a status position. Parent-teacher cooperation focuses on student needs and is positive in character, instead of being negatively oriented—forced by circumstances at a time of crisis. The teacher is acutely aware of his role of guidance counselor of first instance because guidance has a curricular orientation and is not considered as the sole function of a specialist apart from the classroom.

The purpose-base promotes more intra-staff unity in terms of the job to be done, the total developmental education of youngsters. The whole staff achieves better integration. There is more of a sense of teamwork in the total effort. This way infinitely more of the staff potential is tapped for use. More staff leadership can be developed by using people in positions of responsibility for a policy-determined limited tenure. This opportunity is lacking in traditional organization because of the time-honored practice of permanent tenure in status positions, which, in itself, freezes the organizational structure as of a certain date, thus reducing its flexibility. The weaknesses and strengths of the entire staff pattern are highlighted, indicating what to do to stimulate staff growth. Purpose orientation brings more people together to pool ideas for common ends. Status becomes what it should be—functional, not positional. Staff members tend to consider themselves more as professional people working with professional colleagues, with all that implies in the difference in approach to pupils, parents, and coworkers regardless of title. The administrator's role takes on more of a leadership quality than a directorial one, hence demanding more professional growth of administrative personnel. The purpose-based concept recognizes that the staff has a unified quality, a balance, an organismic growth potential and must be considered as an entity, because the characteristics of the staff pattern and its internal operational relationships in large measure create the educational climate of the school.

FORMING AND SCHEDULING INSTRUCTIONAL GROUPS

The formation and scheduling of instructional groups, classes, sections, rosters, or whatever one chooses to call them are at once a creative opportunity and a pressing responsibility to set the instructional stage. The criteria of selection in establishing groups of manageable size from a total population determine classroom methodology, contribute to feelings of success and security in pupils and professionals, and directly affect per-

sonnel policies. Instructional groups can be formed by a set of criteria that will make teachers' methodological problems all but impossible to solve. Or, by using a different set, more of the school purposes and the satisfactions and learnings from group living are placed within realizable achievement.

Before proceeding further with this discussion let's relegate the twin specters "homogeneous" and "heterogeneous" to the limbo of statistical fiction, where they belong. Neither need haunt the person who forms groups from a finite number of children. This does not mean it is impossible to control the range of differences to make the methodological task easier. Neither is a collection of say thirty children necessarily a coherent group. A coherent group has an observable character, an aura that differentiates it from other groups, coming as a resultant of the interaction of all the force vectors within the field. We can change groups by introducing new people. This is the key to scheduling, because the teacher is at once a group member and an objective group manipulator.

Pooling the guidance counselor's analysis and description of class groups with the administrator's analysis of personnel, thus fitting teachers to groups, can enhance the learning experience of pupils. Groups can and should be reformed and rescheduled as necessary at any time to realize more of the inherent potential of individuals as well as groups. This continuous professional diagnosis and action-prescription should be done in every school, but it is of greater importance in the junior high school because of the developmental age of the children involved.

Children in school learn in groups varying in size from the small clique to the assembly audience. Some of these groups are of the transient, spontaneous type. Others, such as the student council, service corps, the library assistants, camera crew, stage crew, clean-up squads and cafeteria helpers, those together in a lunch period and in coeducational game activities are frequently regarded as not primarily instructional groups. Criteria of selection can also operate here to enhance learning. In forming all groups, of whatever character, grade-label should not be the dominating criterion. Is it too much to think of seventh and ninth grade pupils working together on a basis of equal competence? Must we, more than we need to, play with blocks in scheduling? Educational need, physical size, geographical residence, contributing elementary school origin, social class, individual competencies, interests, abilities both active and potential, leadership, social age and competence, emotional maturity, physical health (in addition to those commonly used) are criteria at hand to use in furthering instructional purposes drawn to achieve maximum pupil growth. And for all pupils there should be the opportunity to work in a group toward an objective for which there are no extrinsic rewards such as marks or certificates or letters; where attendance is not compulsory; where the sheer satisfaction of personal accomplishment, the consciousness of a worth-while task well done, is the compensation.

Time is but one of the variable dimensions of the program structure rather than a set limit to be met or within which we build with children. The junior high school deals with a particular period of development. Some pupils might take four years, others two, or in extreme cases five or one, to reach the point where the program of a modern senior high school is better adapted to meet their needs. When this point is reached they should be placed there. There is no pe-

culiar merit inherent in the abstraction of "threeness." The junior high school should be considered more as a unit, not completely stratified into yearly layers on the basis of chronology. An individual pupil program, in some cases at least, might well contain scheduled experiences on three different (so-called) grade levels in varying amounts to suit peculiar needs. Competence is an almost untried criterion in forming learning groups in the several specialized areas. We too often miss the opportunity here for socialization that comes from working out solutions with peers of competence rather than chronology.

Time duration is also one of the variable dimensions of instruction. We are influenced far too much by the time allotments thought necessary for instruction in the schools of 1905, the year the specifications for college entrance credits of the Carnegie Unit were adopted.[3] In the junior high school there is much less reason than in any other secondary school unit to worship the "great god five" of the Carnegie Unit idolatry. Time is precious; there is so much to do; there is a world of ever-widening horizons to explore. Why the required fifth period of the hierarchy when four or three are enough to do the job? Or why stigmatize those for whom six or seven or even ten is a better number when related to overall goals? Is there a unique virtue in a semester or an arbitrarily limited marking period for certain aspects of learning? There is a subtle snobbishness in the terms used in trying to relate time duration to instruction. "Majors" occupy a higher status than "minors" only because of elapsed time, ignoring the purpose and quality of what goes on. If we are going to use time duration in adapting instruction to the individual needs of children, why this "major" and "minor" distinction? Does it really mean that the rapid learner achieves less competence in the same subject in three periods than the slow one does in five? Assigned "major credit" would say so. Terms are even invented to bolster this artificiality. "Solids" imply the frothiness of the "non-solids" or the "once-a-week-subject." Not so long ago, the "non-solids" were lumped under "frills." Here are basic postulates about learning that must be challenged. This traditional time worship of 1905 vintage confuses rather than clarifies thinking and planning.

If we can throw off these self-imposed shackles of restrictive time patterns, we can plan in terms of learning laboratories, general cores, cycle cores (cycles within cores) spot specialities, individual specialization, or time as needed. We can throw open the door to creative methodology, use group problems, positive "situational contagion," raise the level of aspiration and give professional teamwork the scope it needs. We can set individual and group competence as our goals and cease making frenetic credit-chasers out of our pupils.

The junior high school has come of age. The future is bright if we but grasp the opportunity we now have to actuate a program closer to the best we know about children and learning and society. We can and must devise the reciprocally reinforcing operational patterns that will give our programs the stability, flexibility, and adaptability they need to meet present challenges and those to come.

[3] See *The Carnegie Unit: Its Origin Status and Trends* (U. S. Department of Health Education and Welfare, U. S. Office of Education), Bulletin 1954, Number 7.

An Expanding Concept of Guidance*

OVID PARODY

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At a recent educational conference, three junior high school principals were lunching together. Joe Dowdall, of Centerville, turned to his two companions and asked, "How did you fellows make out with your requests for additional guidance counselors?"

"My superintendent and board will agree to give me another classroom teacher, but they refuse to add any more special personnel," replied Paul Milstead of Greenville.

Clarence Nystrom of Plainville chuckled as he said, "My folks did just the opposite. Instead of providing a guidance counselor as I had hoped, they decided to give me a remedial reading teacher because so much fuss has been raised about reading in our town."

"I guess we all drew a blank," said Dowdall ruefully. "Remember I told you I was going to ask for a curriculum coordinator? Well, I had to settle for a part-time science supervisor because of our poor showing on standardized tests, and complaints from the high school."

The above incident illustrates fairly typically the current confusion relative to the roles and relationships among school personnel: classroom teachers, guidance counselors, pupil-personnel specialists, and curriculum coordinators.

At the center of the problem we find the guidance process, particularly as it relates to the curriculum. Therefore, this discussion will consider the guidance process and its various relationships, for the purpose of suggesting ways of improving the total program.

A look at the field indicates that guidance operates through two basic patterns —the Specialized and the Integrated— and mixed versions which grow out of the interaction of these patterns.

Specialized

1. The counselor visits sending schools, meets with sixth-grade pupils and their parents, and attempts to orient them to the junior high school. He secures and studies the guidance folders of pupils. He organizes the pupils into seventh-grade groups and makes notes in regard to individual deviations. The folders are filed in the counselor's office.

Integrated

1. The counselor is chairman of a process in which the sixth- and seventh-grade teachers meet to discuss individual sixth-grade pupils and their grouping. The guidance folders remain in the possession of the seventh-grade homeroom teachers. The seventh-grade teachers meet with the sixth-grade parents for orientation purposes.

* Dr. Parody's leadership in curriculum development activities on the junior high school level has focused increasing attention on the role of guidance as an integral part of effective teaching.

2. Maladjusted pupils are sent to the counselor by classroom teachers. The counselor is expected to change the behaviors of the pupils so that they will adjust themselves to the work of the classroom.	2. Teachers seek advice of counselor in regard to differentiating their work to meet individual pupil needs. The counselor visits classrooms and observes individual pupil behaviors in class setting. Counselor offers suggestions to teacher relative to teaching–learning techniques, learning activities, materials, etc.
3. Counselor gives I.Q. and achievement tests and reports results to teachers. He may also give additional adjustment tests, interest inventories, or some aptitude tests, in special cases.	3. Teachers do the testing with the aid of the counselor. They also use many informal techniques for securing understanding of individual pupils as a regular part of class work. These may include autobiographies, anecdotal reports, class discussions, cooperative planning, behavior rating scales, observation inventories and check lists, field trips, special responsibilities, sociograms, conferences, self-evaluation, parent conferences, etc.
4. Counselor guides pupils' vocational and educational choices by means of group and individual conferences with pupils and parents.	4. Counselor works with teachers in the cooperative planning of teaching–learning units in the various areas of adolescent need including vocational and educational needs. Parents are kept informed through active participation, regularly scheduled parent conferences, periodic and informal supplementary reports, as an integral part of the teaching–learning process.
5. Teachers send recommendations for individual schedule changes and suggestions for regrouping to the guidance counselor.	5. Grouping is considered a flexible process which is constantly changing within the classroom as interests, purposes, and problems shift. Adjustments are worked out by the classroom teacher with the help of the counselor.
6. The counselor refers extreme cases of maladjustment to specialists within the school system and school community. Specialists work on these cases directly outside of class.	6. The counselor works on extreme cases at the building level through coordinating the efforts of teachers-parents-specialists in bringing about a better classroom adjustment. Only those who fail to respond to this cooperative effort receive special treatment on an individual basis.

The one pattern assumes that guidance is a process that takes place outside of the classroom and has to be conducted by someone who is a specialist. The other suggests that guidance is a valuable process to be incorporated into the competencies of the classroom teacher. In the latter, the counselor is expected to re-educate the classroom teacher to the guidance point of view and pass on his know-how.

EXPANSION OF GUIDANCE

Which pattern of guidance best meets the needs of early adolescents growing up in our culture? At this point, we should turn our attention again to the discussion of early adolescents and our culture by Melvin Barnes on pages 513 to 521 of this issue. Dr. Barnes clearly implies the need for an expanding concept of guidance in our schools.

It is the whole child, dealing with problems of significance to him, who seeks guidance in our schools. We cannot effectively guide a child when he is artificially divided into parts and put to work on abstracted phases of problems: physically in physical education, socially in social studies, intellectually in mathematics, emotionally in music, and so forth. Such a day does not add up to the whole child working on problems of significance to him. It just adds up to a day of academic schoolteaching for boys and girls abstracted from the concerns of actual living. The interaction of abstractions with abstractions does not produce wholesome growth of boys and girls; wholesome growth results from wholesome learning. Therefore, we need to bring guidance and curriculum together in our schools so that we may guide the wholesome growth of boys and girls in dealing with the problems in our culture which impinge upon them.

A more comprehensive guidance approach seems to be dictated by our professional educational foundations. How, then, shall we move guidance and curriculum into a more effective whole?

It is encouraging to note that movement in this direction is well under way in certain areas of school practice. First of all, good teachers have always used and will doubtless continue to use guidance insights and techniques in their regular class teaching because they are common values of good teaching. Also, much progress toward the generalized concept of guidance as good school practice has been made in the elementary school, particularly at the primary level, where the emphasis is more on child development than on content mastery. Newer movements at the junior high school level, such as the emphasis on general education, common learnings, core courses, and so forth are more nearly based on an integrated guidance–curriculum approach. Some of the larger comprehensive senior high schools are being organized on a school-within-a-school basis in such a way that small groups of pupils become basic guidance–curriculum units.

All of these movements are encouraging to the supporters of the broader concept of guidance, many of whom feel that a normal transition is taking place and that we shall one day find that classroom teaching and guidance are indistinguishable. They feel that we should be alert to keep the process moving in the right direction but also should be patient because growth is a slow and sometimes tortuous affair. If we try to force it, we may build resistance and the effort may backfire; but if we are patient and prudential in making decisions as problems arise from day to day, the steady, constant accumulation of these decisions will move the program into the new design.

We believe this expectancy is naive. It overlooks the important fact that present practice is loaded in favor of specialization through compartmentalization. Thus, a decision to permit natural growth within our present structure is a vote in favor of perpetuating the narrow concept of guidance. Pressure may in time break down walls, but continued pressure against a wall may increase resist-

ance from the fellow on the other side, and stronger and thicker walls may result. In such a struggle, the focus shifts away from guidance-learning activities and our energies become dissipated in peripheral activities.

Let us look at the way teachers might function within the two patterns previously described and consider how one may limit and the other expand their perceptions. The specialized pattern encourages teachers to see their role as Miss Abernathy, a seventh-grade social studies teacher, sees hers. The following is a typical planning outline for Miss Abernathy:

FOR MONDAY

Assign Chapter 18 on Hawaii in the text in all social studies classes. Have them write out answers to questions at end of chapter. Papers due on Wednesday. Warn them about test on Thursday.

Bring assignments for homeroom to study, to keep them busy, if the meeting gets out of control. Send Harriet, Vic, and Theresa to Miss Reed for remedial reading, if she is in the building. They can't study if they can't read.

Third period social. Send Alfred to the office; he can't keep his mouth shut. Send Betty to the counselor; she doesn't belong in the seventh grade. Keep Charlie after school to work on map study—he's too fresh.

Fourth period. See about having Herman transferred to first period social. He's too bright for that fourth period group. Maybe he could switch with Norbert who is so slow. I don't think Norbert's I.Q. is really 110; he should be retested.

Miss Abernathy sees her role as trying to make children fit into moulds of social conformity and achieve mastery of subject matter according to arbitrary standards. Guidance as she applies it doesn't help to remake her perceptions or techniques, it tends rather to crystallize her expectancies and serves as a tool to aid her in shaping children to the predetermined mould.

Miss Abernathy recognizes that children are different, but she still expects them to be grouped so that they can all learn alike in classes grouped according to standards of "slow," "average," and "bright." Miss Abernathy accepts the fact that children need guidance in working out their developmental needs, but she frequently sends them to the guidance counselor for "punishment." During the homeroom period, she attempts to create a relaxed atmosphere, but when she relaxes she feels ill at ease and out of character, the children take advantage of the lack of direction, and so she then turns the period into a study hall. She believes that children should be guided in purposeful study, but she uses "busy work" study to enforce discipline. As a social studies teacher, she has to work with reading problems, but if pupils can't read . . . well, she "wasn't specially trained to teach reading," so she turns the pupils over to a specialist.

Will Miss Abernathy's horizons be expanded if we just wait for nature to take its course? How about the implication of Melvin Barnes's article for this kind of teaching role?

Now let us consider Miss Bennett—a seventh-grade core teacher. Her planning notes indicate a different orientation, in which guidance is an integral part of teaching. Diagnosis of need and planning of appropriate learning experiences go hand in hand. Guidance is used to supply a variety of learning experience to promote the growth and development of boys and girls according to their individual needs.

PLANNING NOTES

Have children write Carl in the hospital and tell him about last week's class activities. This will enable us to review last week's

learning experiences and to launch our planning for this week.

Begin building readiness for unit on Hawaii: bulletin board display, read letter from Miss Shutts, our visiting teacher in Hawaii. Have Michado Fujii's mother show her Kodachrome slides. Encourage children to raise questions which can be used as springboard for formulation of study goals and outlines.

As unit progresses through pupil-teacher planning, try to keep in mind: Alfred needs greater group acceptance and more academic challenge. Try special research assignments at school and community library. Perhaps he could win better acceptance by working with Charlie's group and editing their reports.

Mary is overactive and needs to find more constructive outlets. Her art ability might be capitalized on by making maps and charts.

John is quite immature. He needs some routine responsibilities. Try him in charge of the bulletin board display.

Marie seems to be becoming more and more absorbed in day dreaming. At times she almost loses contact with reality. Maybe she could become interested in Hawaiian music. Check to see if there is room for her in the social dancing club. Think I had better have another talk with the guidance counselor about her.

Jimmy seems discouraged. He needs encouragement and a taste of success. Be sure to praise him for the feeding shelf he built. Look up some easy reading material about Hawaii. See coach again about having him shower regularly to reduce that body odor.

Is the situation more favorable for Miss Bennett? What is to prevent her from continuing to develop a more mature interaction between guidance and curriculum which might spread to other teachers? What resistance will she run into? When an attempt is made to use learning activities to meet growth needs of individual pupils as Miss Bennett is doing, one of the first charges raised will be "Lowering of standards. . . . Children should be held up to a standard—standards should not be lowered to them."

When teachers look upon behavior as an expression of need and try to provide better ways of meeting needs, then we hear, "Soft pedagogy. . . . Counseling is coddling. . . . No wonder we have so much delinquency." If teachers work in broader areas than the traditional subject areas, parents and other teachers will question, "How can one person be specialized in more than one area?"

The core teachers will discuss the whole child—physical–social–emotional–intellectual—with parents in conference, but they will frequently be forced to send home report cards which emphasize academic achievement only, and the report card is the pay-off.

Parents and teachers will state that children should learn to assume responsibility and become self-directive, but they will expect this to be accomplished under teacher domination, the children having no freedom to make decisions in order to learn how to make better decisions.

General education teachers are called upon to do continuous guidance–curriculum planning, but no provision is made in the daily schedule for such cooperative planning. Teachers like Miss Bennett will run into much resistance of this kind.

It should be apparent that these blocks to an expanding concept of guidance stem from certain static perceptions of education. And these static perceptions function as silent assumptions which are used as the basis for judging a program.

For example, some persons assume that the curriculum exists in a specific, fixed, and final form—definite chunks of the cultural heritage which have been polished and smoothed through the years of use. This subject matter is ready at hand for teachers to get over to their students. Good teaching, according to the Miss Abernathys, consists in "getting your stuff across." Children are expected to re-

sist the "stuff," but herein lies the teachers' golden opportunity to discipline their pupils and to build character. Fixed content, authoritatively imposed—this is the static perception. It exists as a silent assumption for the judgment of school practices by many parents and teachers. These stereotypes grew out of earlier thinking based on "faculty psychology" which flourished in a prescientific and authoritarian era.

On the other hand, when guidance enters the educational picture, as in Miss Bennett's teaching, the focus shifts from subject matter content to the developmental patterns of boys and girls. Subject matter is still used—frequently even more subject matter is used—but it is used as a means of promoting growth rather than as an end in itself. Many people will accept the guidance function on the verbal level, but still judge educational practice by feelings of right and wrong based upon the previously described silent traditional concepts. This is an educational paradox which causes the work of innovating teachers and schools to become short-circuited and turned back into the "safe" procedures of the traditional stereotypes. Thus, the conclusion is forced upon us that educational growth toward the much-needed integration of guidance and curriculum cannot come about by individual teachers or schools operating on a broken front. Action on a broken front is not an appropriate device unless it is part of a larger strategy, or comprehensive plan of development.

NEED FOR COMPREHENSIVE EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Comprehensive educational planning is a many-sided affair. There is considerable distance between a Miss Abernathy and a Miss Bennett. If we agree that we want to close the gap toward Miss Bennett, how shall we move?

1. *Community Participation.* The movement must be based on widespread understanding and acceptance. It cannot be confined to the professional staff alone. It has to fit into a larger concept of the whole, so that the parts will continue to work effectively as the larger whole emerges. It is like building short stretches of roadway as local improvements which later will become integral parts of a larger through way system.

Community representatives need to be invited from time to time to participate with the professional staff in the study of school issues and problems. Agreements have to be sought in regard to desirable directions, priority of need, allocation of responsibilities, redesigning of organizational structure, redefining of roles, and the like.

2. *Teacher Security.* A deliberate effort to redefine the role of teachers who will function more in Miss Bennett's fashion does not mean a disregard for individual differences existing among teachers. Individual differences would be respected and doubtless encouraged within the very broad functional areas of teacher-counselors. We should avoid the implication that teachers can be readily classified as either traditional or modern and that the former should be put under threat.

Most teachers, and other school personnel for that matter, function partially on a traditional and partially on a modern basis. There is something of both Miss Abernathy and Miss Bennett in each of us. Why not accept both the Abernathy and the Bennett in each teacher and try to help teachers find their greatest security and professional satisfaction in continuous growth toward the larger competencies of teacher-counselors?

3. *Official Commitment.* Too many school systems are uncommitted. They make some decisions in favor of the Miss Abernathys and others in favor of the Miss Bennetts. They will staff to support the former but recruit to increase the latter. They will evaluate to encourage teachers to grow more like Miss Bennett but will provide in-service education to perpetuate the Miss Abernathys. Parents are taught to expect a Miss Bennett but their children are assigned to a Miss Abernathy. As a result, neither the Abernathy nor the Bennett within each of us is happy. We become uncertain and insecure because neither trend is fully supported and encouraged. The public feels uncertain and dissatisfied too, and turns to panaceas or scapegoats for cure or explanation of "what is wrong with our schools."

When such school systems come under attack, who defends what? Miss Abernathy can't defend Miss Bennett without exposing herself and Miss Bennett can't defend herself without exposing Miss Abernathy. So, uncommitted school systems are particularly vulnerable to attack because they stand on undefensible ground.

Attack in the form of public criticism of our schools is bound to come during a period of rapid cultural transition. If movement is away from traditional foundations, the attack will come from the more educationally conservative wing of public opinion. If a system remains rooted in traditional foundations, the attack will come more slowly and with less intensity, but with greater professional justification, from the more educationally liberal segment of the public.

We are suggesting, therefore, that a school system should officially commit itself in the direction implied by our educational foundations as described in Dr. Barnes's aforementioned article. This official commitment should of course grow out of widespread understanding and acceptance. Such commitment will serve a dual purpose: it will provide official sanction for moving the system in the desired direction, and it will also provide basic policy as grounds for defense against counterattack.

4. *Operational Guide.* Some people will say that such high-level official statements of policy by a board of education will have little effect on the day-to-day work of a school system. This charge is probably true of a policy statement that is merely an isolated act, but if the policy is part of a comprehensive operational plan, then it will be effective.

As a part of a larger plan, the policy statement becomes an operational guide for making day-to-day decisions relative to staffing—recruiting and inducting and evaluating teachers—scheduling and planning in-service education; purchasing supplies; selecting new school sites; designing new buildings; planning parent education and public relations programs; and a host of other practical problems. In fact, a school system cannot function effectively unless day-to-day decisions are made consistently in the light of a common unifying purpose.

5. *Structural Change.* However, the over-all plan will not be effective unless it is further supported by necessary changes in Kindergarten through grade 12. A school designed for a Miss Abernathy will not fit a Miss Bennett. For example, if the expanding concept of guidance is to flourish at the junior high school level, we need to restructure through a process of cooperative planning to permit the development of transitional staff roles. We need to clarify and secure acceptance for the remaking of teaching, guidance, pupil personnel serv-

ices, and administration into a more functional organization.

We might move along such broad lines as the following:

1. From teachers as subject-matter specialists to teacher-counselors who draw learning resources from broad areas while they deepen their understanding of adolescents as they guide them through their developmental tasks.

2. From guidance counselors who work as specialists to counselor–teachers who function as: (a) counselors to teacher-counselors in coordinating their guidance-curriculum activities, (b) counselors to teacher-counselors in working with deviate pupils, (c) counselors directly working with children who are extreme deviates, (d) coordinators of visiting pupil personnel teams while working with serious deviates.

3. From principals who are business managers to principals who are instructional leaders working with staff teams: instructional councils, advisory councils of parents and laymen, and so forth.

4. From building units organized on grade levels and department sections to relatively self-contained pupil groups of 150-200; with staff teams of teacher-counselors and counselor-teachers focusing on the continuous growth and development of each pupil.

6. *Teacher Competencies.* This structure, however, will not become functional unless we can develop the teacher competencies required. Developing the competencies of teacher–counselors is the hinge on which the whole movement would turn. The teacher–counselor would have the basic place in the new educational constellation. Counselor–teachers, pupil personnel specialists, administrators, and others would be supporting roles. The basic role is so important as to justify elaboration. A teacher–counselor should be able to:

1. Live as an intelligent democratic personality in home, community, and professional life, developing more insight relative to self and others in interpersonal relationships.

2. Study our developing American culture as it interacts in the modern world; see implications of current trends, problems, and conflicts for both democratic citizenship and public education.

3. Analyze a community's social structure, processes, institutions, and problems to determine citizenship and educational needs.

4. Diagnose the educational dynamics of the local school–community situation to locate the pressures and resistances which are shaping the local program.

5. Understand the functioning of the local school system and building faculty: financial structure, policy and policy making, channels of communication, traditions and expectancies, the role of the teacher, professional relationships, available services and resources.

6. Help lessen the gap between theory and practice through the appropriate use of cooperative transitional and action research techniques which will move the program in a more desirable direction.

7. Grow in the understanding of the psychosocial dynamics of human behavior both in individual and in group situations.

8. Apply this knowledge of human growth and development to the understanding of boys and girls through the study of cumulative personnel data, behavior observations, projective techniques, etc.

9. Create a good learning environment by efficient selection and management of materials, equipment, bulletin boards, exhibits, displays, centers of interest.

10. Plan for grade or subject areas, both long range and from day to day.

11. Guide the learning process in the classroom situation.

12. Confer with pupils and parents in individual conferences.

13. Evaluate the roles of pupils, teachers, parents, supervisors, administrators, and others in the cooperative educative process for the purpose of improving the process.

14. Aid in the growth of education as a profession through membership and participation in the activities of professional organizations at community, state, and national levels.

This kind of teacher growth will not come about easily or automatically. It will be a task to be shared by both pre-

service and in-service programs. If teacher competencies are to change, teacher perceptions of their roles will have to change first. Therefore, we need to create conditions which will help teachers to accept the need for change of role, desire to assume the new role, feel that they are capable of learning it and have the opportunity to do so, receive support and reassurance as they learn the new role and secure satisfaction from performing it.

This discussion has tried to show that movement in the desired direction cannot be accomplished incidentally or on a broken front unless this action is part of a deliberately planned program. If such a program is to succeeed, it will have to be generally understood and widely accepted—officially sanctioned and used as an operational guide in decision making—and school structure and teacher functioning will have to be remade to support the new program.

We believe that this transitional program will establish a beneficent cycle in which guidance will improve teaching; teaching will improve learning; learning will improve living; living will become more democratic; and thus the American public schools will fulfill their mission in an age of cultural crisis.

Junior High School and the Six-Year Unit*

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THIS discussion is concerned with the education of youth in grades seven, eight, and nine. Its specific purpose is to evaluate the effectiveness of the two most prevalent types of organization—the separate three-year school, and the unit for the same grades in a six-year junior-senior high school.

The evaluation of these two organizational plans is in no sense a scientific survey. The opinions expressed are merely illustrative of how the people feel who are intimately connected with the day-by-day routine of early youth education.

The opinions of administrators, teachers, parents, and students in Charlotte, North Carolina, were solicited. This city was selected because of its ready accessibility and because both types of junior high school organization are present in the school system.

The tendency in junior high school planning in Charlotte is toward a separate three-year school for early adolescence. However, geographical and financial considerations have influenced decisions on establishing three six-year junior-senior high schools. Present plans definitely call for the separation into two units of at least one of these combination schools, and the Charlotte Board of Education has also discussed the possibility of dividing a second. One former six-year school was converted into a three-year junior high school in 1954. At present there are seven junior high schools, serving grades seven, eight, and nine exclusively.

Before 1920 the growth of the junior high school was insignificant, and the purposes and characteristics were indefinite. The initial rapid increase in numbers came during the 1920's. In the depression years its rate of growth was considerably slowed. In recent years, however, the new school has attained status through rapid expansion.

During the past year the United States Office of Education issued a statistical study of the junior high school from 1920 to 1952.[1] In this graphic analysis are contained the most recent and most authoritative facts about the growth and current status of this newest unit in the school system.

* Dr. Otts has had extensive experience as a principal of both junior and senior high schools. Sedgefield Junior High School, to which Mr. Cagle came from Graham Junior High School, is one of Charlotte's remarkable new school plants.

[1] United States Office of Education, *Junior High School Facts—A Graphic Analysis* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1955), 71 pp.

Between 1920 and 1952 the total number of public secondary schools in the United States increased from 14,326 to 23,746. During this thirty-two year period the regular four-year high school was consistently the most common youth-education unit. The reorganized secondary school, however, has increased dramatically—as separate junior high schools, junior-senior combinations, and senior high schools—and has caused a gradual reduction of four-year institutions from 13,421 in 1920 to 10,618 in 1952.

The separately organized junior high school is typically for grades seven, eight, and nine, but not exclusively so. According to the study by the United States Office of Education, the junior-senior high school organization is now growing more rapidly than the separate junior high school. During the period under consideration the latter increased in numbers from 55 to 3,227; the "undivided" secondary unit from 828 to 8,591; the separate senior high school for grades ten, eleven, and twelve from 22 to 1760.

Perhaps more significant than the number of units of each type is the number of boys and girls who attend these schools. Total enrollment of public secondary schools increased during the period under consideration from approximately 2 million to 7.7 million. The separate junior high school enrollment grew from 37,000 to 1.5 million; the junior-senior high school from 275,000 to 2.7 million. During this same period the number attending regular four-year high schools increased from 1.7 million to 1.9 million. On a percentage basis, this represented a decrease from 83 per cent of the total to 25 per cent.

One other item of statistical information which seems pertinent to this discussion is concerned with the relative status of each type of junior high school in rural and urban communities. The 1952 report shows that more than 70 per cent of all separate junior high schools in continental United States are in towns and cities. Approximately 75 per cent of all undivided high schools are located in rural communities, and more than 90 per cent of them are in rural areas or urban communities of less than 10,000 population.

Statistics show that there are more than twice as many junior-senior high schools as there are separate junior high schools. This fact might lead to erroneous conclusions without an analysis of the data and an explanation of reasons.

A closer look at the growth figures reveals that while the undivided six-year school is more popular in terms of total number and total enrollment, the rate of growth since 1920 strongly favors the separate junior high school.

The average enrollment of junior-senior high schools is 314. In communities which are average or below average in enrollment, it is economically unsound to build two separate plants, each housing approximately 150 students.

An informal poll among administrators, teachers, parents, and students in Charlotte, North Carolina, indicates some reasons why the separate junior high school is preferred in larger cities, where enrollment justifies the construction of separate facilities.

Interviews were held with the ten principals in the Charlotte system whose schools include grades seven, eight, and nine. In addition, conferences were held with all general administrative officers and with several elementary principals, particularly those who send students to both types of junior high schools.

All teachers in these ten schools were given an opportunity to react to ques-

tions concerning their experience in either a three-year junior high school or a six-year school or both. At least seventy-five teachers responded who had had experience in both types.

Discussions were held with approximately thirty parents. A majority had had children in both junior and junior-senior schools. Three parents in the group had been given the option of sending their children to either a separate three-year unit or a six-year unit. All selected the three-year school.

Approximately 150 students in grades eight and nine in one three-year junior high school were asked for their opinion on the relative merits of the two units. During 1954-55 all of these students had attended a six-year school. One core class in a separate junior high school devoted class time to a discussion of this problem. In this group, experience in both the separate unit and the combination school was represented.

A study of the literature on the junior high school movement from 1920 to the present reveals many attempts to list the purposes and functions of this special educational unit. Quite often identical purposes are phrased in slightly different language. In general, there is consistency in the goals listed. Gruhn and Douglass[2] list five items which are fairly representative of writers in this area, and a tentative outline for a current doctoral project report gives the same items.[3] These five purposes are integration, exploration, guidance, differentiation, and socialization.

An attempt has been made in our city to evaluate informally the junior high school as a separate school and as the first three grades of a junior-senior high school. This has been done by canvassing some administrators, teachers, parents, and pupils in the Charlotte area for their opinions on the effectiveness of each organization in terms of these five purposes.

Integration. This is interpreted to mean a unifying influence in the lives of boys and girls during early adolescence. It implies that the junior high school should seek to provide learning experiences which will lead toward effective and wholesome behavior through a continuation during these critical years of the common integrating education begun in the elementary school.

All respondents to the informal opinion poll agreed that the three-year junior high school does a more effective job in this respect than the undivided six-year school. Many administrators and teachers called attention to the fact that the junior high school should still be considered a neighborhood school, serving an area slightly larger than the elementary school. Of necessity, the junior-senior high school is likely to serve a larger segment of the community, thus grouping together pupils from an immediate neighborhood with those from at least a quadrant of the city. This latter plan harms the unifying purpose of the junior high school.

Typical comments from those polled were as follows:

The three-year school focuses attention upon the needs of a specific age group and provides ample opportunity for common learnings.

A seven-eight-nine organization offers the greatest challenge in present-day teaching. A separate junior high school offers greater opportunity for core teaching. Excessive departmentalization is more likely in the six-year school.

[2] William T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1947), pp. 59-60.

[3] Tentative outline for doctoral project by Howard O. McEachen, "Status and Trends in Organization and Curriculum in Selected Junior High Schools."

There is more junior high spirit in a separate school. (Student)

Exploration. An opportunity to explore interests, aptitudes, and abilities without the limitations of senior high school has always been one of the prime purposes of the junior high school.

Practically every principal and teacher felt very strongly that the separate school was relatively free from the rules and regulations of the higher unit, which tends to curtail the experimentation and exploration so sorely needed at this critical age. One teacher referred to the potential "prison-house" of the senior high school "which closes in on the growing boy and girl." There were other pertinent comments:

Provides greater opportunity for a curriculum flexible enough to encourage exploration and experimentation.

Elasticity and not confinement.

Primary advantage of three-year school is the greater exploratory experience which might be reduced in the six-year school by the urge to get on with the business of units, vocations, and college.

Regional accrediting bodies place definite restrictions on senior high schools, thus endangering the junior high grades housed in the same quarters and often sharing the same staff and philosophy.

The junior high school gives us a better chance to grow up and to learn dependability through the activities for which we are responsible. In six-year schools these are run by older students.

Guidance. That students may learn to recognize their potentialities and limitations in this crucial period has been and is today one of the most important goals of the junior high school. Here should be provided opportunities to assist pupils to move toward self-discipline and intelligent decision-making.

One of the students interviewed summarized the matter in this way: "The smaller school gives us better chances to practice democracy through participation in activities which belong to us. This helps us to learn to make right decisions."

A parent called attention to the great difference in age, attitude, outlook, and action of the early adolescent and the later adolescent. She emphasized the pressing need of helping these youngsters to develop initiative, character, dependability, and social consciousness. She voiced the emphatic opinion that guidance opportunities were infinitely greater in a smaller and more single-minded environment.

The likelihood of the homeroom teacher's being more available through more numerous contacts with each individual student in the separate junior high school was expressed by many teachers and administrators.

Differentiation. Because compulsory attendance at school may cease at the tenth grade (or age sixteen), it is likely that the junior high school student bodies will have a greater diversity of intelligence, background, aptitude, and interest than the slightly more selective senior high school. Most of those who participated in this poll expressed the belief that the separate school provided more intelligent attention to this differentiation and was more likely to provide facilities and opportunities suited to this variation. The individual would probably have a greater sense of belonging in the more compact unit.

Practically everyone emphasized the greater chance for leadership in the separate school. Students, particularly, felt keenly the scant opportunity for development in this area in the six-year school. Here are a few opinions:

The junior-senior high school might hold back some individual's special ability; the junior high gives us a chance to learn to express ourselves.

In the separate junior high we have more experience in student government.

In a three-year school, qualities for later leadership are developed.

Socialization. Probably the most important need of the junior high student is to begin discovering his role in the social order and to adapt himself to varied relationships. Administrators, teachers, parents, and students were unanimous (as far as this sampling is concerned) in rating the separate three-year school as better able to meet this challenge than the six-year school.

As one student said, "You get to know each other better." If an early adolescent finds a niche for himself, life to him is fairly successful.

The following comments from principals and teachers are significant.

A seventh- or eighth-grader is hesitant to express himself in the presence of students much older. Ease of expression might be achieved in a three-year set-up which is separate from the senior high school, even though both units occupy the same quarters, but the chances are considerably less.

In the separate junior high school the pupil plays a genuine part in student government.

The development of a sense of security is much more likely in the three-year school.

Students consider these matters highly important. The following brief comments reflect their concern.

I feel more relaxed in a junior high. I am with others like me. We are the same age, and we like the same things.

The junior high school gives a better chance for social life. In a junior-senior situation you begin to run around with people who are too old for you.

In the smaller school there is a closer fellowship. You know everyone and have more friends.

One girl, however, called attention to a disadvantage of the three-year school.

Ninth-grade girls date senior-high boys, and a three-year school presents a problem.

Several of those replying thought the three-year junior high school might have a slight disadvantage in articulation; that a six-year school might provide an easier transition from grade nine to grade ten. However, none felt that the loss was appreciable in the separate units.

SUMMARY

In summary, the statement of one of the local administrators on the relative advantages and disadvantages of the separate three-year junior high school reflects the general opinion in this area:

I believe in the junior high school plan. The junior high school has a function to perform for a critical age group that can best operate in separate quarters, since this unit has social as well as educational aspects. Having observed both seven-eight-nine and seven-twelve types of organizations, I feel that many of the social values are lost in the latter plan. However, where density of population does not permit two schools, separate grouping in one school is better than a unified junior-senior arrangement. It takes skillful administration to preserve the social values in the junior school when the senior school is in the same quarters. Where both groups are together there is a danger of the senior group having too much influence even over the curriculum itself and certainly over the type of instruction.

However, in some communities the separate junior high school will be impractical because of the relatively small number of secondary school students.

Nevertheless, opinion of these school personnel, parents, and students was practically unanimous on the superiority of the separate junior high school in meeting the challenge presented by boys and girls in grades seven, eight, and nine.

Materials for Curriculum Workers in Secondary Schools*

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THIS selected and annotated list of materials has been developed in an effort to bring together for curriculum workers in secondary schools a few audio-visual and printed materials which can be used with teacher groups working together to improve learning opportunities for secondary-school youth. The materials deal with areas which supervisors, teachers, department chairmen, and principals have identified as sources of concern in working for the improvement of the opportunities for learning in junior high schools.

The areas treated in this list have been limited to those regarding which the authors have received the most frequent requests for help. Attention is not given to content per se, because teachers, principals, department chairmen, and supervisors seem more confident about their knowledge of subject matter, and are placing emphasis on increasing their understandings and skills for determining the bases of learning opportunities for adolescent youth, for dealing with influences which affect learning, and for developing appropriate and effective teaching skills. They all constantly seek materials which will help them work together for curriculum improvement. Areas about which concern has centered are: (1) Developing Understanding of the Junior High School Program; (2) Understanding How Learning Takes Place and Influences Affecting It; (3) Developing a Desirable Learning Situation; (4) Utilizing Appropriate Skills in Teaching; (5) Developing Understandings and Skills Teachers Need to Work Together for Curriculum Improvement. A brief statement about each of the categories follows. A final statement is made about the use of the materials.

The reader will appreciate the difficulties encountered in classifying these materials. Many of them might have been listed appropriately in several of the categories; a few have been listed twice.

UNDERSTANDING THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

Throughout the country many faculties are being brought together for the first time in new secondary schools. Many teachers are being introduced for

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the first time to responsibilities for teaching junior high school boys and girls. Some books in the brief listing in this category will help teachers become oriented to considerations basic to developing a program of secondary education. A few of the books deal specifically with the junior high school. These are discernible by their titles.

The materials listed here have been selected for the individual teacher or group who desires a quick orientation to the place and program of the junior high school in American education. If an individual or a group wishes to examine thoughtfully over a considerable period of time the role and function of the junior high school in American education, the listed materials may be used to gain an understanding of current thinking relative to junior high school programs. This reading might well be followed by study of the historical development of the junior high school, a thorough study of the general function and purpose of the school in American society, and the mental, emotional, and physical qualities and characteristics of an adolescent in present-day America and the world.

Combined groups of professional and lay people in communities planning for a new secondary school might well build this kind of background preliminary to developing program and building plans. More creative educational programs for youth as well as more functional school buildings would undoubtedly result from this kind of study.

HOW LEARNING TAKES PLACE AND INFLUENCES AFFECTING IT

Teachers are increasingly eager to relate research about how people learn to their job of teaching. In their efforts to improve learning opportunities for youth they are asking for help in understanding the impact of emotional, mental, social, physical maturing upon the learning process. What influence does the adolescent's concept of himself have upon his learning? Do social factors impinging upon the lives of youth affect their ability to learn?

Teachers are asking for help in understanding the implications for teaching in many of the challenges offered by the study of interpersonal relations and self-understanding. What significance does the theory of personality formation through interpersonal relationships have for teaching? What is the teacher's obligation to understand himself in order that he may better understand his students? What does the idea indicate for teacher-pupil relationships and their influence upon learning?

Finally, teachers are hearing an old word, "perceive," used seemingly in a new connotation. As they ponder its present use they see that it has meaning for them in understanding the learners with whom they work.

What do all the ideas raised by these questions suggest for the organization of learning opportunities for children, and for the teacher's role in the classroom? Does learning occur most readily as the child works with pieces of ideas, or as he is helped to view a total idea—to see relationships among ideas? What is the teacher's role in such important aspects of teaching as establishing learning goals?

Materials for this category were selected to help teachers to gain information and to develop understandings about many of the questions raised in this brief discussion.

DEVELOPING A DESIRABLE LEARNING SITUATION

Teachers used to ask, "How can I motivate the students?"—generally meaning, "How can I make them learn?" As a result of their study of how learning takes place, teachers are concerning themselves with developing a desirable situation in which it can take place.

What are the characteristics of a desirable learning situation? Research says much about children's interests developing as a result of the opportunities open to them, of the environment in which they find themselves. How does a rich environment in a classroom look? How does it feel? To what extent is it extraneous to the learning activities in progress? To what extent does it grow out of the activities?

In the previous section, the importance of teachers' knowing and understanding the ideas of growth and development was emphasized. It was also suggested that such other factors as societal influences and the student's expectations for himself influence his learning. If a teacher accepts these ideas, how are they reflected in the learning situation? What do these ideas indicate for the organization of the school day, for the utilization of skills and subject matter? What do they indicate for the importance of children being in a school situation where they feel secure to explore ideas, to use many materials, and to test their abilities and interests? Clues at least for examining many of the ideas raised by these questions will be found in the materials listed under this category.

UTILIZING APPROPRIATE SKILLS IN TEACHING

Many of the ideas teachers have for improving their teaching situations cause them to question some of their teaching techniques as well as to search for additional skills. They ask for aid in teacher–pupil planning, wishing particularly to have assistance with such questions as: How much does the teacher preplan? What does the preplanning mean for the teacher's operation with the group? Does the teacher have a responsibility to develop desirable attitudes? How can skills be taught most effectively? How are groups formed? Does the teacher place students in groups, or do students always select their own groups?

Teachers are also asking for help in ways to learn more about the group they are teaching—both as individuals and as a group. They want help in interpretation of test and anecdotal records found in students' guidance folders. They want help in developing skills for studying their pupils through such techniques as conversations with them, student conferences, anecdotal records, and sociometric techniques.

Again, clues for answers to many of these questions and areas of need are found in the materials listed.

DEVELOPING SKILLS NEEDED TO WORK TOGETHER

Teaching staffs frequently have not had guidance and resource assistance in studying instructional problems. If members of a school staff are to work together to improve instruction for children, they often need help in understanding and assuming their role and responsibility individually and as a group in this important work. Their previous experiences may have negated the concept that they have a responsibility to work with others on the staff to improve the educational opportunities for youth.

Teacher groups over the country are seeking to develop understandings and

skills in their ways of working. Lack of knowledge of skills for group work is often a serious deterrent to successful group endeavor. Lack of understanding and knowledge of the basic principles of self-understanding and of perception frequently causes serious road-blocks to group activities.

What is meant by "work for curriculum improvement"? Is it rearranging the content of the old course of study or the former textbook? There is a critical need in secondary schools for curriculum improvement work that has depth and quality. This means that in their study, teacher groups need to re-examine the bases for determining much of what is being taught, know the research relative to the social sciences and technology in their modern society, re-examine their basic philosophy and carry on research relative to their teaching situation. As they test and evaluate the opportunities they provide for children and the techniques they employ, they will want to record much of their work. Teaching units and guides can then be developed for use as reference materials and as aids for new teachers. It may also be appropriate to develop such items as a handbook or newssheet for parents which will acquaint them with learning opportunities their children are having. Curriculum workers have a responsibility to provide teachers with many materials and much guidance in this kind of study.

If an individual school staff or teachers throughout a school system are working for curriculum improvement, the organization for the work becomes very important. It is well to develop the organization as need for it arises, thereby avoiding creation of a superstructure for which people see no purpose. However, curriculum workers are responsible for anticipating need for the organization. Programs for curriculum improvement often encounter serious difficulty because of a lack of coordination, of adequate channels of communication with the staff, and of provisions for expediting work.

HOW TO USE THIS LIST

Alert curriculum workers endeavor to provide staff groups with materials that will facilitate their thinking and their work. Effective utilization of these materials will depend almost entirely upon recognition of those points in the study of a problem at which a particular film, pamphlet, or book may contribute to increasing understanding or extending perception. As teachers try to develop new skills, films may help to clarify their understanding of procedures. Sometimes ways of working block the achievement of a group. Often a film will throw light on the kind of behavior responsible for the difficulty. Or a group may decide to examine methods before undertaking a study. In one workshop, eighteen separate groups took forty-five minutes of their first meeting to listen to a tape recording that helped to define the roles of various group members and to suggest procedures to facilitate specific tasks. In another school, the faculty deliberately gave attention to their ways of working, and in so doing made provision for using films and filmstrips designed to develop understanding of group techniques, skills, and human relations.

Again, a film may be used to open up an area to which little attention has hitherto been given. The curriculum leader needs to be alert to opportunities for helping a group explore a problem more thoroughly and move ahead in its work. Lists such as the one which follows should be readily available to teachers and their requests for material should be expedited.

RESOURCE MATERIALS

I. DEVELOPING AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

PAMPHLETS

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Developing Programs for Young Adolescents.* Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1954. 53 p.

Describes in detail several seventh, eighth, and ninth grade programs in the South and Middle West which illustrate the basic principles of exploration for junior high school children developed in the first part of the pamphlet.

Gaumnitz, Walter Herbert, and Committee, *Junior High School Facts.* Office of Education Bulletin No. 21. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1954. 71 p.

Analyzes, through a compilation of graphs, data relative to such factors as development of the junior high school movement in the United States, the purposes of the junior high school, and the status and trends in size of this section of the educational program.

National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Planning for American Youth.* National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D. C., 1951. 63 p.

Digest of *Education for All American Youth.* Presents, with illustrations, summaries of the three school programs found in *Education for All American Youth.* The programs are developed in terms of the discussion following statement of the ten imperative needs of youth. Excellent for use with lay groups.

Stratemeyer, Florence B., McKim, Margaret G., and Sweet, Mayme, *Guides to a Curriculum for Modern Living.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 59 p.

Summarizes the theory and principles presented in *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living.* The presentation stresses society and the learner and shows how the persistent life situation concept is applied when teachers work with learners. Excellent for use with lay groups.

University of the State of New York, *A Design for Improving Early Secondary Education in New York State.* Albany: The State Education Department, 1954. 118 p.

Re-examines the base for junior high school education and develops a broad design for such a program. Gives attention to the work of the classroom teacher, including her responsibilities for guidance and evaluation.

Wright, Grace, *State Policies and Regulations Affecting Junior High Schools.* Office of Education Bulletin No. 12. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1955. 32 p.

Presents the results of a research study carried on by the United States Office of Education on the basic practices and policies relative to junior high schools in the forty-eight states. Basic criteria for state approval of junior high school curriculum and administration are included.

BOOKS

Alberty, Harold, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum* (Rev. Ed). New York: Macmillan, 1953. 506 p.

Encourages high school teachers to work to improve curriculum, giving attention to the problems youth meets in our rapidly changing society. Shows some possibilities in a core program for developing content and methodology appropriate for educating youth in our modern society.

Bent, R. K., and Kronenberg, Henry H., *Principles of Secondary Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955. 542 p.

Presents a detailed discussion of the purposes of secondary education, its boundaries in relation to elementary and higher education, and trends in the reorganization of secondary education. Many graphs and charts are included.

Koos, Leonard V. *Junior High School Trends.* Harper and Brothers: New York, 1955. 171 p.

Discusses the historical development of curriculum and guidance in the junior high school.

Mudd, Dorothy. *A Core Program Grows,* Board of Education of Harford County, Bel Air, Maryland, 1949. 138 p.

A brief anecdotal record of work done in initiating the core program in Harford County. Includes such items as a program for a teachers' workshop, a schedule for a core class, and an

outline of the teacher's function in initial planning with students.

Noar, Gertrude, *The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. 373 p.

Proposes basic concepts upon which the program of a junior high school should be developed. Discusses the role of the teacher and principal in developing the program, and the importance of working with the community. Gives titles of and approaches to units of work actually taught in a core group in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades and suggests teaching techniques for a core class.

Saylor, G. and Alexander, W., *Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning.* New York: Rinehart and Company, 1954. 624 p.

Presents a thought-provoking discussion of bases to be considered in planning the curriculum and discusses the kinds of opportunities for teaching and learning which these bases suggest. Attention is also given to the use of materials, to classroom experimentation, and to the cooperative development with learners of the classroom opportunities for learning.

II. UNDERSTANDING HOW LEARNING TAKES PLACE AND INFLUENCES AFFECTING IT

The Learning Process

FILMS

Each Child Is Different (Part 1 of "Elementary School Children"). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1954. Sound, black and white, 17 minutes, $95. Rental NYU[1], $5.00.

Shows the work of a teacher as she seeks to identify the needs of each child and to understand the influences shaping his life. Elementary school children are used in the film, but the ideas presented have value for teachers on all levels.

Importance of Goals. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950. Sound, black and white, 19 minutes, $95. Rental CMC[2], $5.

Clarifies the idea that learning is basically a process of seeking ways of satisfying purposes important to the learner. The film portrays the case of a thirteen-year-old boy who, although full of curiosity about everything around him, finds school extremely dull.

The Impressionable Years. New York: United World Government, 1952. Sound, black and white, 35 minutes, $48.77. Rental NYU, $5.50.

Tells of a child's first experience in a library. This provides a setting for showing the pleasures children of all ages derive from reading.

Individual Differences. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $100. Rental CMC, $5.00.

Makes the point that education must be shaped to meet individual needs. Portrays the difficulties of a shy, slow child who suffers by comparison with his older brother. Ways of helping him to develop his own talents are illustrated.

Learning to Understand Children (2 parts). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947. Sound, black and white.

Part 1: *A Diagnostic Approach.* 21 minutes, $100. Rental NYU, $5.

Presents a case study of an adolescent girl, showing the home conditions primarily responsible for her social and emotional maladjustment.

Part 2: *A Remedial Program.* 21 minutes, $100. Rental NYU, $5.

Demonstrates the role of the teacher in working with the girl and her mother. Illustrates the kind of classroom experiences which help the child to develop self-confidence and the skills she needs to work with others.

Skippy and the Three R's. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1953. Sound, color, 29 minutes, $100. Free loan National Education Association. Rental CMC, $5.

Focuses attention on importance of personal involvement of the child in the learning act. Shows interrelationships of language skills and demonstrates modern methods of instruction in beginning reading. Although the film portrays a child learning to read, it has important implications for secondary teachers.

[1] NYU: New York University Film Library.
[2] CMC: Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University Press.

Mental, Emotional, and Social Growth in the Adolescent

FILMS

Age of Turmoil. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952. Sound, black and white, 20 minutes, $110. Rental NYU, $4.

Illustrates common characteristics of behavior of adolescent boys and girls, and indicates basic needs of this age group. Several types of parent-child relationships are portrayed through dramatization of everyday incidents in the lives of six adolescent boys and girls. The film offers guidance in the kind of adult help adolescents need as they seek ways of assuming more adult roles.

Belonging to the Group. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1952. Sound, black and white, 16 minutes, $75. Rental, $3.50.

Shows the problems adults and teen-agers have in finding their places in new groups. Two families move into a new town. Some of the members adjust easily, finding ways in which to become accepted members of groups; others meet obstacles. Emphasis is given to the need of people to be accepted.

Farewell to Childhood. Chicago, Illinois: International Film Bureau, 1952. Sound, black and white, 23 minutes, $85. Rental CMC, $4.

Illustrates the struggle of a fifteen-year-old girl to assume an independent role. The need for guidance and understanding on the part of parents and other adults is stressed and the role of the school guidance counselor defined.

Feeling of Hostility. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1953. Sound, black and white, 27 minutes, $95. Rental CMC, $6.

Presents a case history of a child who feels left out when her mother remarries. An effort to compensate drives her to a high level of achievement. In early adulthood she is pictured as successful in the working situation, but wholly inadequate in her personal relationships. The cause of the problem is felt to stem from her early childhood.

Preface to a Life. New York: United World Films, 1950. Sound, black and white, 29 minutes, $43.02. Rental CMC, $4.

Develops several episodes which illustrate the effect of an overanxious mother and an over-demanding father on the developing personality of the child.

Toward Emotional Maturity. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955. Sound, black and white, 11 minutes, $60. Rental CMC, $4.

Dramatizes incidents portraying the emotional reactions of adolescents. The film has value for teachers interested in increasing their understanding of adolescent behavior and for high school boys and girls striving to gain a deeper understanding of their own emotions.

PERIODICAL AND PAMPHLET

American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, "Growth, Development and Learning." Washington, D. C.: The Association in *Review of Educational Research,* XXV:5 December, 1955. 175 p.

Reviews the research during the past three years on learning, physical and mental growth, and personal and social development of children and adolescents. This issue of *The Review* gives excellent help for a study of adolescents. Discussions of the studies dealing with problems of aging and psychological adjustment are also included.

Havighurst, Robert J., *Developmental Tasks and Education* (2nd ed.). New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1952. 100 p.

Explains the developmental task concept. The life span is divided into seven periods, ranging from infancy to later maturity, and the tasks of each age are identified. Many suggestions are made concerning ways in which the school may help boys and girls with specific tasks.

Understanding Self and Others

FILMS

The Eye of the Beholder. Los Angeles: Sovereign Productions, Inc., 1954. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $100.

Illustrates the idea that people interpret the behavior of others in terms of their own perceptual fields. Three individuals describe the same set of events, each presenting a different interpretation. When the person described explains his own behavior, the previous interpretations are shown to be completely inaccurate.

Facing Reality. New York: McGraw-Hill

Book Company, 1954. Sound, black and white, 12 minutes, $70. Rental CMC, $4.

Deals with common forms of defense and escape mechanisms. Several types of defensive behavior are demonstrated through a case study of a high school boy who shows a tendency to react negatively to the suggestions and activities of his age group. The film offers a "safe" subject for examining behavior. Teachers and others concerned with increasing self-understanding should find this material useful in stimulating discussion.

Family Affair. New York: Film Images, Inc., 1955. Sound, black and white, 31 minutes, $125. Rent apply.

Demonstrates the effectiveness of counseling interviews in promoting self-understanding. The rebellion of a teen-age boy against the domination of his mother brings to the surface personal problems of both parents. While emphasis is on analysis of difficulties of the parents, teachers will find many implications for their work with boys and girls.

Our Invisible Committees. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Training Laboratory in Group Development, 1951. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $135. Rental, $4.

Shows a group of people representing several community organizations blocked in making decisions by the conflict of social pressures within each individual.

Overdependency. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1948. Sound, black and white, 32 minutes, $115. Rental CMC, $5.

Portrays escapist behavior in an adult. Traces the cause of a young adult's continuing poor health to overprotection in childhood and indicates the kind of help needed.

PAMPHLET

Heaton, Margaret N., *Feelings Are Facts.* San Francisco, California: San Francisco Board of Education, 1951. 59 p. (Republished by the National Conference of Christians and Jews.)

Deals with the need for developing wholesome attitudes toward self and others and includes principles and procedures for developing a human relations program. Illustrative material has been drawn from discussions held with principals and teachers.

BOOKS

Jersild, Arthur T. *In Search of Self.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 141 p.

Explores the implications in the concept of self-understanding for teachers and for the school program, and stresses the need for educators to provide opportunities for young people to develop realistic attitudes toward themselves and others. Presents pertinent ideas from the fields of psychology and psychoanalysis and discusses the influence of the school and especially of the teacher on the formation of the self-concept.

Jersild, Arthur T., *When Teachers Face Themselves.* New York: Bureau of Pubtions, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 169 p.

Deals with the theme that an essential function of education is the development of self-understanding and self-acceptance, and discusses what these concepts mean for teachers. The author gives major emphasis to anxiety, loneliness, a search for meanings, hostility, and compassion.

Taba, Hilda, and Elkins, Deborah, *With Focus on Human Relations.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1950. 227 p.

Describes the work of an eighth-grade teacher in developing over a three-year period a program centered on problems of human relations. Source materials were drawn from the fields of guidance, literature, and social studies and the problems studied were the interpersonal and intergroup ones which were part of the daily living of the boys and girls.

Societal Factors

FILM

Tale of Two Towns. East Lansing, Michigan: Agra Films, 1954. Sound, black and white, and color, 43 minutes, $66.48 and $226.00. Rental: Michigan State, $2.00.

Presents the school as a focal point in the community and draws the conclusion that a well-organized school system working in cooperation with other community agencies can give a powerful impetus to community life.

FILMSTRIP

The Family—A Changing Pattern. Detroit, Michigan: Wayne University, 1954. Silent, black and white, 35 frames, $3.50.

Deals with changes in patterns of family life resulting from growth, changed economy, and other forces. Points out ways in which the school has taken over certain activities formerly an aspect of family life. A stimulant for a study of the school program.

PAMPHLET

Bathhurst, Effie G., *Where Children Live Affects the Curriculum.* Bulletin No. 7. Federal Security Agency. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1950. 77 p.

Describes school programs focused on everyday problems of boys and girls in specific communities. Many examples of ways teachers have used forces in the environment, such as industry, natural resources, ancestry, and folkways to make learning more concrete for boys and girls are cited. Helpful suggestions for ways of discovering significant curricular activities are included.

Organization of Learning Opportunities

FILMS

Education Through Art and Home Economics. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Sound, color, 12 minutes, $90. Rental CMC: $4.

Shows the many kinds of learnings that may be integrated in a class in designing.

Learning Through Cooperative Planning. New York: Teachers College, Columbia, 1948. Sound, black and white, 20 minutes, $75. Rental CMC: $4.

Illustrates the process of group planning and the growth of skill in working with others. Presents a picture of an elementary school planning and executing a community-school project.

Near Home. Chicago, Illinois: International Film Bureau, 1945. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $95. Rental CMC: $5.

Reports a teaching situation in which boys and girls study their community with the help of the teacher. The film illustrates purposeful learning, the role of the teacher as a guide, and the satisfactions of achievement.

Passion for Life (Feature Film). New York: Brandon Films, Inc., 1952. Sound, black and white, 85 minutes. Lease apply; rent apply.

Portrays a country school teacher in France who found the pupils disinterested and the program meaningless. By reorganizing the learning experiences so that they were centered in problems of real concern to the boys and girls and to their families, this teacher succeeded in creating a live curriculum. The film stresses the idea that the values of a more traditional approach were not only preserved in the newer organization but realized to an even greater degree than they were under the older plan.

Problem of Pupil Adjustment—The Drop-Out. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950. Sound, black and white, 19 minutes, $95. Rental CMC: $5.

Relates the story of a boy who, bored with school, leaves as soon as the law permits. The film points out the aspects of the program responsible for early withdrawals.

Problem of Pupil Adjustment—The Stay-In. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950. Sound, black and white, 19 minutes, $95. Rental CMC: $5.

Describes a curriculum organized to meet the needs of individuals and emphasizes learning as a process of adjustment to life. Classes in English, biology, and civics are among those included.

School in Centerville. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Rural, 1950. Sound, black and white, and color, 20 minutes, $90. and $135. Rental: $5.

Illustrates the integrated approach to teaching. The film uses a seventh-grade group to demonstrate the ways in which knowledge and basic skills are acquired as boys and girls work on projects which have meaning to them. Attention is given to the role of the school in the community.

PAMPHLETS

Aldrich, Julian C., and others, *Social Studies for Young Adolescents.* Curriculum Series No. 6. Washington, D. C.; National Council for Social Studies, 1951. 87 p.

Deals with trends in social studies programs on the junior high school level. One of a series of pamphlets planned to cover social studies from kindergarten through junior college, this booklet discusses bases on which present selection of learning experiences rests, describes current programs, and offers specific suggestions for improvement of instruction in this field.

Brown, K. E., and Johnson, P. G., *Education for the Talented in Mathematics and Science*. Bulletin No. 15. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1952. 33 p.

Reports a Joint Conference of the Cooperative Committee on the Teaching of Science and Mathematics of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the United States Office of Education. Stresses the need for developing the talents of gifted students. Provides help in terms of procedures for identifying pupils gifted in mathematics and science and suggestions of suitable organizational patterns and specific activities. Bibliography.

Educational Policies Commission, *Education of the Gifted*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1950. 88 p.

Gives attention to need for development of talented young people in a democracy; identification of special aptitudes and intellectual giftedness; provision for the education of the gifted; unsolved problems in this area.

Fersh, George L. (editor), *The Problems Approach and the Social Studies Curriculum*, Series No. 9. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1955. 115 p.

Presents the philosophy and educational theory underlying the problems approach and describes procedures and techniques used in implementing it. Among topics discussed are preplanning, identifying problems, selecting values, building and using resource units, teacher-pupil planning, and using community resources. Examples of problem-centered learning programs on the elementary, secondary, and college level are cited.

First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, *Vitalizing Secondary Education*. Bulletin No. 5. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1951. 106 p.

Gives clear, concise explanations of the ideas included in Life Adjustment Education with examples of the interpretations made by state and local groups. Implications of these ideas are spelled out in terms of areas such as citizenship education, vocational preparation, and family life.

Jewett, Arno, and Hull, J. Dan (editors), *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners*. Bulletin No. 5. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954. 97 p.

Describes procedures followed in large high schools in adapting school programs to needs of pupils who fall outside the average group. Techniques used in identifying these pupils and provision in specific subject areas for them are presented.

Lewis, Gertrude M., *Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight*. Bulletin No. 10. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954. 99 p.

Reports a study planned to investigate the educational program for the seventh and eighth grades. Attention is centered on what schools should do and what they are doing. Problems facing parents and school personnel are cited. Bibliography.

Scheifele, Marian. *The Gifted Child in the Regular Classroom*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 84 p.

Presents current school practices in meeting needs of the gifted child, lists advantages and disadvantages of special classes and acceleration, and concludes that enrichment in regular classes is preferable. Approximately half of the booklet is given to suggested activities of gifted children in regular classes.

III. DEVELOPING A DESIRABLE LEARNING SITUATION

FILMS

Freedom to Learn. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1954. Sound, black and white, 29 minutes, $75. Rental CMC: $5.

Portrays a high school teacher who has been charged with teaching Communism, explaining the need for boys and girls to have access to information about topics of current interest. In defending her position, the teacher makes the distinction between providing learners with information and indoctrinating them.

Freedom to Read. New York: Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University Press. Sound, black and white, 14 minutes, $50. Rental CMC: $3.

Presents a situation in which a member of the community demands the removal of certain books from the public library. The ques-

tion of who shall determine what people are to be permitted to read is raised and turned over to the audience for discussion.

Individual Differences. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $100. Rental CMC: $5.

See page 556 for description.

Near Home. Chicago, Illinois: International Film Bureau, 1945. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $95. Rental CMC: $5.

See page 559 for description.

The Impressionable Years. New York: United World Government, 1952. Sound, black and white, 35 minutes, $48.77. Rental NYU: $5.50.

See page 556 for description.

School in Centerville. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Rural, 1950. Sound, black and white and color, 20 minutes, $90. and $135. Rental: $5.

See page 559 for description.

FILMSTRIPS

A Core Curriculum in Action. Detroit, Michigan: Wayne University, 1949. Silent, black and white, 55 frames, $3.

Records the progress of a ninth-grade core class, showing nature and procedures of core work. Lists instruments for getting to know the members of the class.

Bringing the World to the Classroom. Detroit, Michigan: Wayne University, 1952. Silent, black and white, 45 frames, $3.50.

Points out the many resources available in the community. Stresses need for careful preparation for adequate use of resource persons.

Pattern for Improvement. Madison, Wisconsin: Visual Education Consultants, Inc., 1955. Silent, black and white, 32 frames, $3.

Presents a science program planned to meet the needs of daily living and to provide for those interested in advanced work. The suggestions offered should be useful to teachers concerned with increasing learning opportunities in the area of science for all students.

PAMPHLETS

Brown, K. E., and Johnson P. G., *Education for the Talented in Mathematics and Science.* Bulletin No. 15. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1952. 33 p.

See page 560 for description.

First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, *Vitalizing Secondary Education.* Bulletin No. 5. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1951. 106 p.

See page 560 for description.

Liaison Committee on Instructional Materials, *Using Free Materials in the Classroom.* Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1953. 16 p.

Includes a set of criteria for the selection of free materials; information concerning sources both local and national; ways of using these materials and procedures for organizing and filing them.

Ovsiew, Leon, *Making the Core Work.* New York: Metropolitan School Study Council. Distributed by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. 53 p.

Reports development and use of core program in junior high schools of Elizabeth, New Jersey. A how-to-do-it pamphlet. Place of core in total school program is discussed and influence of classroom atmosphere is stressed.

IV. UTILIZING APPROPRIATE SKILLS

FILMS

Broader Concept of Method (2 Parts). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947. Sound, black and white.

Part 1: *Developing Pupil Interest.* 13 minutes, $80. Rental CMC: $5.

Contrasts lack of interest and poor quality of learning in recitation type of class with enthusiasm and purposeful learning in a class in which pupils have helped to determine goals. Makes the point that involving the learner is essential in spite of a stereotyped classroom scene.

Part 2: *Teachers and Pupils Planning and Working Together.* 19 minutes, $95. Rental CMC: $5.

Analyzes role of teacher in helping boys and girls learn to work together. Attention is given to teacher-pupil planning, problem definition,

and procedures for working toward promising solutions.

Discovering Individual Differences (Part 2 of "Elementary School Children"). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1954. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $135. Rental NYU: $6.

Shows a teacher studying the background and abilities of her fifth-grade class.

Each Child Is Different (Part 1 of "Elementary School Children"). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1954. Sound, black and white, 17 minutes, $95. Rental NYU: $5.

See page 556 for description.

Learning Through Cooperative Planning. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948. Sound, black and white, 20 minutes, $75. Rental CMC: $4.

See page 559 for description.

Learning to Understand Children (2 Parts). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947. Sound, black and white.

Part 1: *A Diagnostic Approach.* 21 minutes, $100. Rental NYU: $5.

See page 556 for description.

Part 2: *A Remedial Program.* 21 minutes $100. Rental NYU: $5.
$100. Rental NYU: $5.

See page 556 for description.

Maintaining Classroom Discipline. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947. Sound, black and white, 18 minutes, $80. Rental CMC: $5.

Portrays reactions of a high school group to two different methods of teaching. In one situation teacher blames students for low achievement; in the other, teacher accepts test scores as an indication of a need to reteach the work. Illustrates the contrast in teacher-pupil relationships in the two situations and relates it to discipline of the students.

Practicing Democracy. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1953. Sound, black and white, 21 minutes, $100. Rental: $3.

Stresses need for providing type of classroom situation in which skills for democratic living may be learned. Portrays a teacher involving students in decision making, in accepting responsibility for their own learning, and in participating in evaluation of their own work.

Role-Playing in Guidance, Los Angeles, California: University of California, 1953, sound, black and white, 14 minutes, $67.50. Rental CMC: $4.00.

Demonstrates the technique of role-playing and points out ways in which it may be used to help boys and girls think through their problems and find adequate means of overcoming obstacles. This film would serve as a stimulating introduction to role-playing for those unacquainted with the technique, and as a procedural guide for teachers beginning to use it.

The Teacher as Observer and Guide. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946. Sound, black and white, 20 minutes, $60. Rental CMC: $4.

Shows how a teacher guides learning. Stresses importance of providing opportunities for boys and girls to think through problems and emphasizes need for teachers' help at critical points.

Using the Scientific Method. New York: Coronet Films, 1952. Sound, black and white and color, 11 minutes, $50. and $100. Rental: Ideal Films, Inc., $2.

Illustrates the steps of the scientific method. Problem used is need to repair broken plaster satisfactorily and economically. A high school boy tries out the scientific method learned in school.

We Plan Together. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948. Sound, black and white, 20 minutes, $75. Rental CMC: $5.

Presents an eleventh-year core class at work. The film shows a boy making adjustments to a method new to him and illustrates some important kinds of learnings provided in core organization. Attention is given to ways in which students work together and to evaluation through teacher-pupil conferences.

FILMSTRIPS

Know Your Children. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Metropolitan School Study Council, 1949. Silent, black and white, 27 frames, $3.50.

Indicates some types of information a teacher needs to have about children and explains sociometric devices. Elementary school children used but materials are not limited to use with them.

Making Field Trips Effective. Detroit, Michigan: Wayne University, 1952. Silent, black and white, 46 frames, $3.50.

Explains the purposes and values. Shows ways of making the learning experience more concrete.

PAMPHLETS

Horace Mann–Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation. *How to Construct a Sociogram.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. 37 p.

Explains purpose of a sociogram. Bibliography and Classroom Social Distance Scale are included.

Jewett, Arno, and Hull J. Dan (editors), *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners.* Bulletin No. 5. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954. 97 p.

See page 560 for description.

Lewis, Gertrude M., *Educating Children in Grades Seven and Eight.* Bulletin No. 10. Federal Security Agency. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954. 99 p.

See page 560 for description.

Ovsiew, Leon, *Making the Core Work.* New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. 53 p.

See page 561 for description.

Shane, Harold G., *Research Helps in Teaching the Language Arts.* Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. National Education Association, 1955. 80. p.

A compilation and interpretation of research studies which bear directly on basic questions teachers ask. Useful as an aid to teachers interested in re-examining their practices and to all professional personnel concerned with finding a sounder basis for resolving controversial issues.

Shaftel, George, and Fannie R. *Role-Playing the Problem Story,* New York: National Conference of Christian and Jews, 1952. 78 p.

Identifies values to be derived from use of role-playing in problem situations and describes practices found effective in guiding role-playing sessions. Records of experiences of several classes with role-playing illustrate the technique on different grade levels. Place of role-playing in school program and role of the teacher in guidance are defined.

BOOKS

Thorndike, Robert L., and Hagen, Elizabeth, *Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education.* New York: John Wiley, 1955. 575 p.

Provides an excellent treatment of evaluation and testing for teachers' use. An aid which teachers will find valuable in selecting and administering tests and in analyzing test results.

V. DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS TEACHERS NEED TO WORK TOGETHER

Principles and Theory

BOOKS

Caswell, Hollis L., *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950. 462 p.

Centers need for curriculum improvement in context of a changing society which is placing new and critical demands upon children and youth and, consequently, upon the schools. In view of the demands being made upon schools to examine their programs, the authors discuss basic principles underlying curriculum improvement, illustrating these principles with descriptions of several curriculum improvement programs carried on in school systems throughout the country.

Corey, Stephen M., *Action Research to Improve School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 161 p.

Presents theory of action research showing teacher's role and responsibility for doing research in his classroom. A competence often believed by a teacher to be too difficult for him is discussed in such a way that teachers gain a desire to carry on research. Many examples of action research in schools are used throughout the discussion.

Mackenzie, Gordon N., and Corey, Stephen, *Instructional Leadership.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 209 p.

Evolves a new and stimulating theory of leadership for educational workers based upon concepts developed from psychiatry, philosophy,

and psychology. The theory is supported and illustrated with an account of and examples from the leadership study done by the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation with the Denver Public Schools. Many illustrations from school situations are used throughout the book.

Miel, Alice M., *Changing the Curriculum: A Social Process.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1946. 242 p.

Presents an initial statement of principles and theory of cooperative planning to improve school programs. Gives direction to educational workers for their ways of working together as well as for their ways of working with children. Liberal quotations throughout from fields of sociology, anthropology and philosophy which support the idea being developed by the author.

Organization for Curriculum Work

PAMPHLETS

Doll, Ronald C., Passow, Harry A., and Corey, Stephen M., *Organizing for Curriculum Improvement.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 77 p.

Discusses advantages and disadvantages of three types of organization for curriculum improvement: (1) centralized approach, in which all curriculum activities are initiated and directed by central office personnel; (2) decentralized type of organization, in which primary responsibility for curriculum work rests in individual school; (3) centrally coordinated procedure, in which activities of individual schools and activities of central office supervisory personnel supplement each other.

Roles in Curriculum Work

FILMS

Fight for Better Schools. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. Sound, black and white, 20 minutes, $80. Rental CMC: $4.

Deals with efforts of people in Arlington County, Virginia, to improve the educational program in their own community. Shows obstacles met and ways of working to achieve desired goals. Clarifies roles of lay people and professional personnel as they work together to solve school problems.

PAMPHLET

Seminar in Supervision and Curriculum Improvement, *The Work of the Curriculum Coordinator in New Jersey Schools.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 50 p.

Reports an action research study in which a number of curriculum leaders in public school systems and the members of a graduate seminar in Supervision and Curriculum Development worked together to investigate duties and responsibilities of chief instructional leader in public school systems. Attention is given to: (1) the curriculum point of view on which the report is based; (2) organization and procedures for curriculum improvement; (3) guide lines for evaluation.

Techniques and Skills

FILMS

All I Need Is a Conference. New York: Henry Strauss and Company, Inc., 1955. Sound, black and white, 28 minutes, $165. Accompanying training primer and training course manual.

Defines leadership role primarily as one of understanding the personal make-up of each individual conference member and utilizing that knowledge to guide the group toward cooperative action. Points out need for involving group members in contributing to solution of the problem; emphasizes causes of ineffective meetings; illustrates appropriate leadership techniques. Attention is given throughout the film to invisible concerns which each person brings with him to the conference and to their effect on his behavior.

The training primer, "Meetings Are What You Make Them," suggests leadership responsibilities and activities and offers help in preparing for leadership. The training course manual, "All I Need Is a Conference," presents a more comprehensive program for training leaders. Both pamphlets may be used independently of the film.

Meeting in Session (2 reels). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Sound, black and white, 20 minutes, $75. Rental CMC: $4.

Demonstrates behavior of members of a group under autocratic and democratic leadership. First sequence shows failure of an autocratic supervisor to secure cooperation; second illustrates effectiveness of democratic procedures.

Our Invisible Committees. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Training Laboratory in Group Development, 1951. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $135. Rental: $4.

Shows a group of people representing several community organizations blocked in making decisions by conflict of social pressure within each individual.

Role-Playing in Human Relations. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1949. Sound, black and white, 25 minutes, $85. Rental CMC: $5.

Illustrates several role-playing situations. Emphasizes use of this technique as a means of: (1) gaining insight into behavior of others; (2) revealing some of the blocks to satisfying interpersonal relations; (3) practicing new behavior before trying it in a real situation.

PAMPHLETS

Bergevin, P., and Morris D., *A Manual for Discussion Leaders.* Bloomington, Indiana: Community Services in Adult Education, 1954. 73 p.

Deals with role, competencies, and activities of the group leader; specific techniques for facilitating group work such as room arrangements; use of resource materials and resource persons; and evaluation procedures. This pamphlet is concise, informative, and useful to both group leaders and followers.

Bildersee, Isaac (chairman, Committee on the Newly Appointed Teacher), *The Newly Appointed Teacher.* New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1950. 49 p.

Describes practices in helping newly appointed teachers make necessary adjustments to a new situation. Major attention is given to growth of security and professional competence.

Campbell, Bernard, *Sixty-three Tested Practices in School Community Relations.* New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1954. 67 p.

Gives attention to techniques for determining what people in the community feel and think about the school; forces in the community and ways of utilizing them to facilitate growth; promising practices in working the lay group in; and procedures for setting up and maintaining channels of communication between professional and lay groups.

Corey, S. M., Halverson, P., and Lowe, E., *Teachers Prepare for Discussion Group Leadership.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. 34 p.

Describes procedures used by a group of teachers to increase their skill as discussion leaders. Basic material was a tape recording of several common group discussion incidents. The pamphlet includes results of evaluation of techniques and the material on the training tape.

Jenkins, David H., and Lippitt, Ronald, *Interpersonal Perception of Teachers, Students and Parents.* Washington, D. C: Division of Adult Education Service, National Education Association, 1951. 119 p.

Reports an action research project. Teachers, parents, and children found difficulty in communicating effectively as they tried to work together. Problem was made focal point of an in-service education program for teachers in which parents and children participated. The pamphlet gives a detailed account of procedures, outcomes and values derived from the study. Emphasis is given to action research both as a research procedure and as a means of facilitating change.

Source Materials for Teachers

PAMPHLETS

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *List of Outstanding Curriculum Materials (1951-54).* Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1955. 35 p.

Lists materials "designed especially for use of or to be used with teachers to help them to improve effectiveness of experience for students in their classes." Included are such aids as courses of study, teachers' guides, teachers' manuals, and resource units.

Carlsen, G. Robert, and Alm, Richard S., *Social Understanding Through Literature.* Washington, D. C.: National Council of the Social Studies. Bulletin No. 28. National Education Association, 1954. 111 p.

An annotated bibliography of imaginative literature and biography prepared for use in social studies and core classes. Categories cover problems related to the physical, economic, civic, social, and world environment.

Citizenship Education Project, *Resources for Citizenship: A Guide to the Selection of Teaching Materials.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 328 p.

Lists a wide variety of supplementary mate-

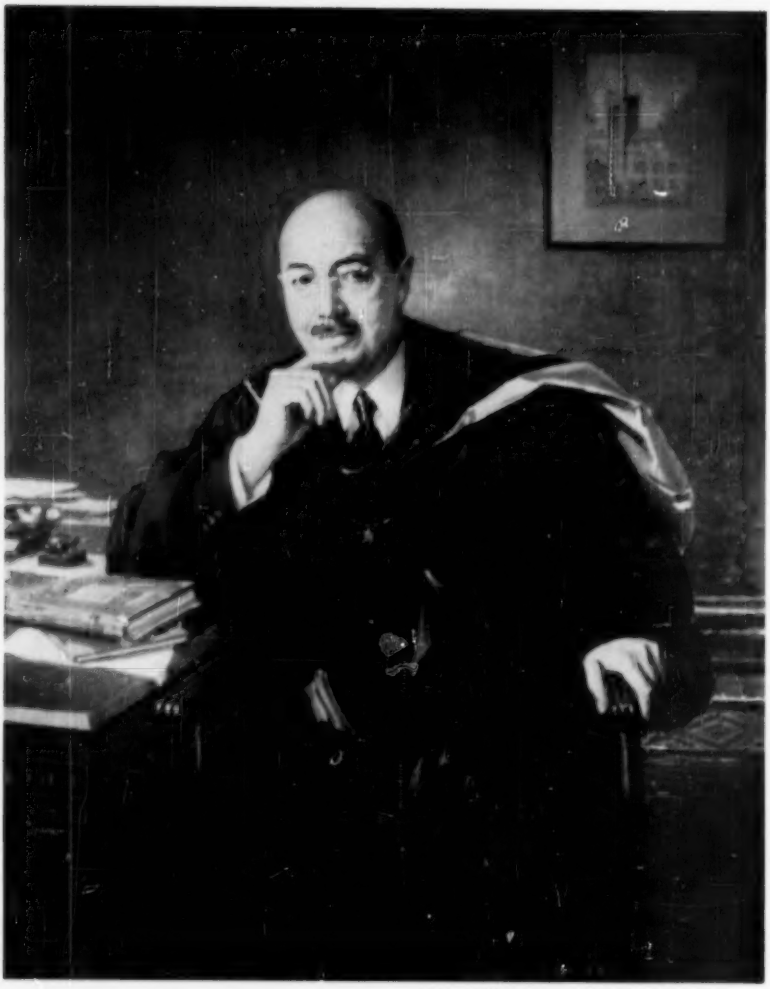
rials useful to teachers of English, social studies, science, art, and vocational classes in the secondary school. Includes novels, biographies, historical documents, essays, and audio-visual materials classified under such headings as democracy, education, government, intercultural relations, the economic system.

Cross, Burnett, *Science for Better Living in Pictures.* New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, Inc., 1950. 32 p.

An annotated bibliography of films for science classes. Pamphlet contains a selected list of films, filmstrips and slides, and picture pamphlets collected "for their possible usefulness in helping to teach science—for better living." Materials are evaluated.

DIRECTORY OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

1. Agra Films, Incorporated
   P. O. Box 967
   Athens, Georgia
2. Brandon Films, Incorporated
   200 West 57th Street
   New York 19, New York
3. Center for Mass Communication
   Columbia University Press
   1125 Amsterdam Avenue
   New York 25, New York
4. Coronet Films
   Coronet Building
   Chicago 1, Illinois
5. Encyclopedia Britannica Films (EBF)
   330 West 42nd Street
   New York, New York
6. Film Images, Incorporated
   1860 Broadway
   New York 22, New York
7. Ideal Pictures Corporation
   65 East South Water Street
   Chicago 15, Illinois
8. International Film Bureau
   57 East Jackson Boulevard
   Chicago, Illinois
9. McGraw-Hill Book Company
   330 West 42nd Street
   New York 18, New York
10. National Education Association
    Department of Rural Education
    Department of Adult Education
    1201 16th Street, N. W.
    Washington, D. C.
11. New York University Film Library
    Press Annex Building
    26 Washington Place
    New York 3, New York
12. Henry Strauss Company, Incorporated
    31 West 53rd Street
    New York 19, New York
13. Sovereign Productions, Incorporated
    9120 Sunset Boulevard
    Los Angeles, California
14. Teachers College, Columbia University
    525 West 120th Street
    New York 27, New York
15. United World Films, Incorporated
    (UWF)
    1445 Park Avenue
    New York 29, New York
16. Wayne University
    Audio-Visual Materials Consultation
    Bureau
    5272 Second Boulevard
    Detroit 1, Michigan
17. University of California
    University Extension
    Educational Film Sales Department
    Los Angeles 24, California
18. University of Wisconsin
    Bureau of Visual Instruction
    University Extension Division
    1312 West Johnson Street
    Madison 6, Wisconsin



From portrait by Elie Cristo-Loveanu

WILLIAM FLETCHER RUSSELL

William Fletcher Russell, 1890-1956

The death of our President Emeritus came as a great shock to us all. Only a few days before his passing I talked with him at length on the phone. He was his usual vigorous self, looking to the future with many plans in the making.

It is difficult for me to write of him with any sense of adequacy. His was a many-sided personality and his life was a very full one. I was fortunate to be a member of the last class he taught at Teachers College as a professor of comparative education and to work with him in an administrative relationship for nearly twenty years. A host of remembrances flood my mind as I think of those years.

The thing I like most to remember about him was his great kindness to scores of persons in times of adversity. In illness and misfortune he was an ever ready friend. He had deep feelings for people and would do everything within his power to ease the way for a friend or faculty member in trouble.

It fell to his lot to make many hard administrative decisions in which the status and wishes of individuals had to be weighed against the general welfare of the institution. It was always a grueling experience for him to make these decisions, and he sometimes assumed a certain coldness—which I know he was far from feeling—as a means of subordinating his natural sympathy for individuals to the broader welfare of the College.

Another personal characteristic which influenced all of his actions stands out in my work with him. He was singularly honest in expressing his opinions. He did not dissemble or tell half-truths. He seemed fearful that people with whom he was dealing would not fully understand just what he felt or believed. This passion for forthrightness sometimes led to difficulties, for until people became well acquainted with him they often found it hard to accept the directness of his statements. There was never any need to wonder how you stood in working with Will Russell, nor would you ever hear of something he had said behind your back. Whatever he had to say he said directly and forcefully to your face.

One other personal trait that he possessed to a rare degree was the giving of credit to his colleagues for good work they had done. Never have I known a man more generous in this respect. Time and again while I worked closely with him, especially as associate dean and dean, I saw him go out of his way to call the attention of our trustees to the fact that an idea that had worked out well had been suggested by someone else.

The record of his contribution to Teachers College and to education in general is one of high achievement. The years of his administration of the College covered periods of major difficulty. He was only well started as chief executive of the College when the great depression hit. Then came World War II, and finally readjustment to postwar conditions. Through all of these difficult times he held the course of college development

true to the tradition and ideals upon which it had gained its outstanding position of national and international service. He fostered sound, creative scholarship by the faculty; he insisted on the importance of the professional orientation of teacher education; and he kept the College constantly alert to new developments and needs.

In 1927, when he became chief executive of the College, the enrollment was 5,701, there were 106 members of the faculty, and the net assets of the College were $14.5 million. When he retired, in 1954, the enrollment was 6,918, there were 149 members of the faculty, and the net assets of the College were approximately $20 million. During these twenty-seven years Teachers College conferred 71,453 degrees and 6,270 professional diplomas.

Dr. Russell, even though carrying a heavy administrative burden, always maintained his scholarly interests. There were two fields to which he devoted himself primarily. At the time he became dean he was working in comparative education. He was very active in this field through the years, having greater firsthand international experience than any other American educator of his generation. It was something of a culmination of this work which brought him into a position of leadership in forming the World Organization of the Teaching Profession following World War II and resulted in his selection as president from 1947 to 1952.

He also had a dominating interest in Citizenship Education. His international work led him to see how important a role education must play in achieving a nation's ideals. He was director of the National Citizenship Education Program of the Department of Justice from 1941 to 1945. When General Eisenhower came to Columbia as President he and Dr. Russell found a common concern in the problem of improving American citizenship. They planned together the Citizenship Education Project of Teachers College, which was financed by the Carnegie Corporation for an eight-year period and to which Dr. Russell gave much thought and attention.

His services to education were great and he received many recognitions of their value. Among other things and in addition to those already mentioned, he was director of the Educational Section, Russian Division, Committee on Public Information 1918-19; member of the China Educational Commission 1920-22; chairman of American Delegation, World Federation of Education Associations 1925-27; chairman of the American Council on Education 1933-35; member of the National Advisory Committee on Education 1928-31; and member of the American Youth Commission 1935-42. He was a member of Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Delta Kappa, Phi Gamma Delta, and Kappa Delta Pi (Laureate Chapter). He was Commander of the Order of Sava of Jugoslavia, an Officer of the Legion of Honor of France, and Commander of the Order of St. Alexandria of Bulgaria. He was a recipient of honorary degrees from Columbia University, George Washington University, the University of Pittsburgh, Colby College, Colorado College of Education, and Miami University. He was also an Honorary Fellow of the Educational Institute of Scotland and Honorary Vice-President of the Western Teachers Union.

At his death Dr. Russell was rendering highly important service to our country in the field of international relations, serving as Deputy Director of the International Cooperation Administration. Char-

acteristically, he was deeply engrossed in his work, bringing to it rare imagination, knowledge, and enthusiasm. All who are connected in any way with Teachers College can take pride in his record of achievement. We deeply regret that his important work was cut short and that we shall no longer enjoy the stimulation of his ideas and the warmth of his friendship; but they will live on in our memories.

HOLLIS L. CASWELL, *President*

Allan Abbott, 1876-1956

Teacher poet soft spoken and scholarly lean
Whose eager profile and candid forward look drew
us on and out and on and in
Educating us all how word and form collaborate
On page or map or screen or stage
Imaged and said and sung and paced
From Mother Goose to Richard Third to Milton's cosmic note

Humorously reverently
At home with objective correlatives sprung rhythm
and other critics' lore
And no less with the folded and unfolding hills
With geologist's hammer and steering wheel

In his long lofty choirs late
All sweet birds sang

Say truly he was blest
And we were here

LENNOX GREY

ALLAN ABBOTT, who died at St. Luke's Hospital, New York City, March 21, 1956 at the age of eighty, asked that there be no university funeral or memorial service. His colleagues and students plan instead to honor him and his work at the annual spring conference of the Department of the Teaching of English and Foreign Languages, to be held May 5, 1956. The conference will feature a round table on "Improved Educational Writing," carrying forward the concern of his chapter "How Well Can English Teachers Write?" in *Essays in Honor of Charles Swain Thomas* (Harvard University Press, 1940), published shortly before Allan Abbott's retirement as head of the Department of the Teaching of English in 1942.

Highlights of the conference will be reported in a fall issue of TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD.

White Studio

ALLAN ABBOTT

MARY THEODORA WHITLEY

Mary Theodora Whitley, 1879-1956

Dr. Mary Theodora Whitley, member of the Teachers College Department of Psychology for over thirty years, died in St. John's Riverside Hospital in Yonkers, New York, on March 16. She was seventy-seven.

Miss Whitley was born in London, England, and came to the United States in 1901. She and her parents had just returned from a trip to the Orient and were visiting relatives in Canada on their way back to England when the mother fell ill. Deciding to stay on in Canada temporarily, they bought a house, and young Mary Whitley found herself faced with homemaking responsibilities for which she had little preparation. Characteristically, she wanted to do well whatever she must do at all, so she came down to New York to take some courses in Household Arts in Teachers College. While here she enrolled for a course in psychology taught by Dr. Naomi Norsworthy, and almost at once she knew that psychology was her field and early childhood her specialty within the field.

All her college work was taken in Teachers College, which granted her three degrees: Bachelor of Science in 1905; Master of Arts in 1906; and Doctor of Philosophy in 1911. She began her teaching career in 1908 as an assistant to Dr. E. L. Thorndike. In 1909 she became a lecturer in psychology; in 1911, instructor; in 1914, assistant professor; in 1930 associate professor of education. She retired in 1943 to her home in Yonkers, where she had lived since 1922.

Among her publications were four pioneering studies in early childhood education: *A Study of the Little Child*, 1921; *A Study of the Primary Child*, 1922; *A Study of the Junior Child*, 1925; and *Boys and Girls in Other Lands*, 1925. She and Dr. Norsworthy as co-authors published *Psychology of Childhood* in 1918. She also developed tests in child psychology and in religious information. For many years she taught psychology courses especially planned for students in nursing education, in whom she took a great interest. She was a member of the American Psychological Association and a Fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Her students knew her as a brilliant teacher, sometimes terrifying in the breadth and accuracy of her learning and the speed of her ripostes. Faculty colleagues remember her as an accomplished musician, a little shy, with a keen sense of humor and unusual skill in arranging clever parties. Neighbors in Yonkers admired her as an expert gardener, and tell how last summer, leaning on a cane with her left hand she pushed a lawn mower with her right. "I wish I could see the crocuses poke their heads out," she said last January. "Last fall on my hands and knees, dragging these canes, I put in about a thousand. But I shall not be able to wait long enough to see them bloom." Many a rabbi from eastern Europe will remember her as the kindly person who taught him English, for from the time of her retirement until last December she

devoted a good deal of her energy to teaching English to refugees. In the community Church of the Redeemer on Valentine Lane in Yonkers she was greatly beloved, a member of the Board of Deacons—a gentle, kindly person who gladly put her brilliant mind to work on matters of the general welfare. In several other Protestant churches in Yonkers she had taught Bible classes, bringing to that teaching a valuable combination of teaching skill and biblical scholarship.

About the middle of December she was taken to St. John's Riverside Hospital, but in January she was allowed to go back to her home for a time. Her clear mind knew exactly what was ahead. "Are you in pain?" a friend asked her. "No, but I shall be," she replied casually and turned to more interesting topics. Supported by a strong religious faith, she seemed completely unafraid of pain or of death. To the end she remained clear of mind, tranquil, humorous, responsible, planning carefully so that no undue burden should fall on anyone else.

A memorial service was held a week after her death in the Church of the Redeemer. She herself had selected the music and the readings for this service, and it was buoyant, affirmative in spirit. "Let there be no sadness of farewell when I put out to sea."

HELEN M. WALKER

—REVIEWS

Education and Anthropology. Edited and with a foreword by George D. Spindler, Stanford, California, Stanford University Press, 1955. xviii +302 pp. $5.50.

This volume is a new addition to the literature of what has been aptly termed "an age of symposiums." It marks a significant step forward in the *rapprochement* between education and anthropology, a field in which the writer has been actively interested for many years. It represents the first concerted attempt to collate and present ideas and problems arising in anthropology with reference to education, and in education with reference to anthropology.

The prepared papers were "frankly exploratory" in purpose, seeking to implement new types of research into the relationship between education and cultural dynamics. Consequently, they emphasize the importance of an understanding of anthropological data and methods as a problem-solving device, rather than as a subject to be studied per se.

Since what was sought was specifically an understanding of the potential contributions of anthropology to education, all but two of the papers were presented by anthropologists. However, the discussants represented the educators' point of view quite adequately, and I believe that it was here that the groundwork was laid for the possible expansion and development of future research.

The topics ranged from a discussion of "Contrasts Between Prepubertal and Post-Pubertal Education," to "Models for the Analysis of the Educative Process in American Communities" and "The School in the Context of the Community," as presented by anthropologists, to an excellent analysis of "The Meeting of Educational and Anthropological Theory," by Theodore Brameld, which explicitly stressed the importance of an understanding of the concept of culture, and a realization of the importance of the study of values in culture to both fields.

Insights were given into the study of the school as a quasi-autonomous subculture as an aid to the better understanding of educational process. The presentation of anthropological data on the role of the stranger as educator in primitive societies led into a discussion of the role of educational personnel in our own culture, and their status in the social organization of the school.

Following the lead provided by Professor James Quillen, the school was discussed as a cultural institution specifically geared to the development of desirable social change. The school itself is an acculturational situation wherein there is continual contact with new and at times insistent forces, a fact which often engenders conflicts between the goals and values set up by the school community and those stressed in family and extra-school life. Leadership attitudes, gangs, and adolescent problems are a few of the areas in which these conflicts present themselves most forcibly in modern life.

In discussing the necessity for interdisciplinary communication and understanding, Margaret Mead and Solon T. Kimball stressed the lack of educational background and depth among many anthropologists. Educators like Dr. Bush, however, took exception to this form of self-depreciation, feeling that anthropologists must have "very many important insights about the educative process."

It would seem, therefore, that anthropologists and educators have much to learn from each other, and that they must broaden their own concepts and points of view so as to embrace more fully the wider ramifications of both fields. The educator must learn the true importance of education in its cultural context. The anthropologist must learn to analyze his empirical data more fully with respect to educational process.

It would be significant here to mention a few of the basic points which emerged from this conference:

1. In the fields of education and anthropology, there is vital need for a conceptual terminology which will be mutually comprehensible.

2. The optimum communication may be reached between members of the two disciplines who are interdisciplinary in their approach, especially those who are well-versed in psychology and personality theory.

3. In order to understand fully the role of the teacher and school administrator in our complex society, it would be well to make some cross-cultural comparisons in the light of anthropological data and orientations.

4. There is need for an understanding of the anthropological concept of cultural dynamics as it may be applied to the educative process.

5. The American culture itself needs exploration and study utilizing the natural history approach of anthropology if we are to arrive at a fuller understanding of the way in which education in our culture reflects its basic goals and values.

Perhaps from the lines of research suggested by the participants in this symposium there will emerge a more significant understanding and a fuller application of the principles and methods of both education and anthropology.

ANNETTE ROSENSTIEL
New York University

Academic Freedom in Our Time, by Robert M. MacIver. New York, Columbia University Press, 1955. vii + 329 pp. $4.00.

This plea for academic freedom is set in a good account of the climate of American opinion and its importance. It gives a valuable and shocking story of interference with academic freedom in the United States within the last two decades.

Professor MacIver describes well the organization of institutions of higher learning in this country and makes a good case for faculty control of the content and method of instruction and the determination of the qualifications of instructors. He also makes clear the dangers to academic freedom from legislative investigations and meddling boards of trustees.

For this reviewer, however, the book is marred by several distortions. Interference with academic freedom is treated as though it occurred only when anti-Communists snooped about and tried to get rid of Communists. Certainly the problem of integration and the pressures of religious fundamentalists have also had a bearing on academic freedom. Except for a footnote on an entirely different matter, the Tennessee legislation which resulted in the famous Scopes trial is ignored.

For the most part, but not entirely consistently, a distinction is made between Communist schoolteachers and Communist university teachers on the ground that in universities there is no compulsory attendance. Certainly this distinction is a fair one, but it should have been consistently maintained if at all. That the problem of elementary and secondary schools is not regarded as of much importance is indicated by the fact that the situation in the schools is tossed off with a reference to Howard K. Beale's *Are American Teachers Free?*—a good book, but as it was published in 1936 scarcely a timely reference.

There is a tendency, too, to regard the relationship of teacher and student as a

purely intellectual one. We all know that words have only a secondary influence on attitude. The idea that Communist teachers could be dismissed only if they injected Communist propaganda into their teaching or relationships with their students minimizes the importance of person-to-person relationships. Furthermore, it might be pointed out that just as great if not greater danger could develop from inquiries aimed at discovering whether a teacher was injecting Communist propaganda into his teaching or relationships with students as from any of the other investigations to which Professor MacIver takes exception. In fact, it might be argued that an investigation to determine outside Communist activities as a basis for dismissal would be better for an institution than an investigation in which students would be asked to report on their instructors.

The argument that one should not shelter students from exposure to Communist ideas is an unworthy one for the retention of Communist teachers. The question is not whether students should or should not be exposed to Communist ideas. The New York Board of Regents and many other people, including Vice President Nixon, former chairman of the Un-American Activities Committee of the House of Representatives, have urged that students should be exposed to Communist ideas so that they would know the dangers of Communism. This is quite a different matter from endorsing Communist teaching.

The crux of the book is that Professor MacIver seems to believe that even though in many respects Communist teachers are not free, nevertheless investigations and purges are worse than Communist teachers and therefore it is better to leave these teachers alone unless, as stated above, they are found actually to engage in Communist propaganda. To anybody who has followed the Communist theory and practice; to anybody who has met Communists at work trying to take over an organization or destroy it, Professor MacIver's conclusions are amazing in their innocence.

It might be reasonable to argue that a Communist should be permitted to teach if he declared openly his Communism. But Professor MacIver believes that no teacher should gratuitously deliver his views on religion, politics, or anything else except as "based on evidence." Most people express their views and biases dozens of times a day without intending to propagate their faith. Therefore, it would be a good thing for students to know the faith and the political allegiance of all their teachers the better to appraise them. Of course we have now rather foolishly driven the Communists and their fellow travelers underground. This makes the real difficulty in the problem. Otherwise it would be possible to say, "Declare yourself and everybody will know where you stand and be able to make a properly weighted judgment on what you say."

It seems to this reviewer to be muddy thinking to consider only action against Communists to be an interference with academic freedom and to ignore the general Communist practices as interference with academic freedom. It is also hard to see why the author should be critical of members of universities who contribute to the *Educational Reviewer* and the National Council for American Education but ignore their contributions to the *Daily Worker* and the *New Masses*.

It is surprising to find no mention, even in the bibliography, of Gabriel Almond's careful study of *The Appeals of Communism*. A reading of that book should disperse any lingering doubts as to the freedom of the power-oriented Communist to seek the truth and defend it.

JAMES MARSHALL
New York City

The Bearings of Recent Advances in Psychology on Educational Problems, University of London Institute of Education (Studies in Education, No. 7). London, Evans Brothers Limited, 1955. viii + 215 pp. 98 cents. Paperbound.

The lines of communication between psychologists and educationists are notably susceptible to power failure. Often, the two groups also appear to be operating on different frequencies. In an effort to ensure transmission, some psychologists have adopted the lamentable practice of reducing the substantive content of their message to the level of platitude. Not so the British psychologists whose published lectures comprise the volume reviewed here. Originally delivered before audiences of British teachers, this brilliant series of lectures presents the content of contemporary psychology with a degree of lucidity seldom achieved since William James's famous *Talks to Teachers*.

The titles of the lectures should be enough to stir the curiosity of the casual reader: Children's Needs and Interests—Contemporary Psychological Theories of Motivation; The Child Within the Group—The Bearings of Field Theory and Sociometry on Children's Classroom Behavior; Mental Health in the Classroom—The Teacher's Personality and Problems of Children's Adjustment; The Backward Child—the Incidence, Causes and Treatment of Backwardness; Teaching Methods—Psychological Studies of the Curriculum and of Classroom Teaching; How Children Learn—Contemporary Psychological Theories of Learning; The Assessment of Children—Recent Trends in Mental Measurement and Statistical Analysis. The fact that the speakers include such distinguished psychologists as C. E. Fleming, P. E. Vernon, and W. D. Wall ensures an authoritative treatment of the topics.

It is significant perhaps that the lecture which in size, at least, exceeds all others is devoted to discussion of mental health in the classroom. The complexity of this topic, within which lie the nuclei of many current controversies, justifies its extended treatment. The lecturer, Ben S. Morris, Director of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, gives far more than a neutral summary of experimental results. He strides with confidence into areas where few psychologists dare to tread. Drawing heavily upon the work of Erikson in this country and that of Anna Freud and Bion in England, he respects the complexity of such issues as the balance between order and freedom in the classroom without failing to make his position clear. Mr. Morris' suggestion that the "oblique approach through literature" might yield deeper insights into the central concepts of dynamic psychology than would a more direct approach through many formal textbooks will surely sound heretical to some textbook writers. Their cries of indignation are bound to be overwhelmed by the applause of Humanists. Although the suggestion is not a new one, it needs to be made by more psychologists.

The stereotyped relationship between scholarship and pedantry is notably absent in this volume. Indeed, scholarship seems to be happily combined with lucidity and style. This union is well illustrated in the address by Rex Knight on the topic of children's interests and needs. Mr. Knight accomplishes an onerous task. In twenty-three pages he discusses five theories of motivation, ranging from the work of McDougall to that of Hebb. The reader who does not have an extensive background in psychology should find Knight's lecture stimulating.

It would be pleasing to report that all of the papers in this volume are of equal quality. As the reader might expect, this is not the case. Doubtless the fact that they were first presented orally placed some limits upon their depth and breadth. Consequently, this reviewer frequently wished that the authors had treated in more detail some of the research studies which were mentioned in passing. This was especially true of some of the European studies, the reports of which are not easily accessible to American readers. Miss Fleming's address is particularly disturbing in this regard. Although her published lecture is accompanied by a list of suggested readings, she casually mentions a number of European research papers without giving adequate biblio-

graphic data. Despite this fault, the volume remains a rich source of references to English research.

In the Foreword to the lectures G. B. Jeffery states, "It must be difficult for any teacher or educational administrator to avoid some knowledge of psychology, but unless he is a specialist in educational psychology he must find it difficult to keep pace with the rapid advance in this field of science" (p. vii). The busy American educator could hardly disagree with this statement. He should welcome, then, this attempt by British psychologists to keep him informed of recent developments.

PHILIP W. JACKSON
University of Chicago

Ruth Kotinsky and Helen L. Witmer, editors, *Community Programs for Mental Health.* Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1955. $5.00.

The title of this book is misleading, for this collection of papers goes far beyond the merely descriptive. Viewed as a whole, it highlights the status of and the problems and issues inherent in community programs of mental health.

The six essays that comprise the main part of the book fall into three categories: theory, practice, and evaluation. The first two sections point up effectively the need for clarification of aims and purposes in the mental health field, while the third offers suggestions for evaluative methods that might aid such a process of clarification.

Sol W. Ginsburg in the article that forms the theoretical part of this volume, clearly outlines the problems—"inadequate definitions of mental health," "insufficient knowledge of causation" of mental illness, lack of effective evaluative methods, conflicting views on the best training for mental health workers—that face people working in the field of mental health. These same problems are recurring themes throughout the book. Dr. Ginsburg's article furnishes the backdrop against which various community and school programs of mental health are described.

No better picture of the differences in attitudes toward and the points of attack upon mental illness and its causes and treatment can be found than in the materials that make up Part II of this book. Presented in reportorial fashion, this section shows the lack of unity among the approaches to mental health. All of the nine community programs, for example, have different aims and different implementation. In one program, workers concentrate upon supplying information to parent groups; in another, upon counseling with disturbed individuals; and in still another, upon research activities. Each program differs fundamentally from every other one, and its focus and activity apparently depend almost entirely upon the point of view of its particular director. Agreement appears only in the cries for greater public support and increased financial aid. The authors of this descriptive section point up effectively the need for coordination in the planning and establishment of mental health programs.

The two articles in the third section (evaluation) are perhaps the most interesting and constructive in this volume. Inevitably, most writers on mental health agree, as Louisa Howe points out, that "there is need for research, and for research personnel, research time, and research funds. . . . Methods should be appraised, causes should be sought, effects should be measured, a fuller understanding should be gained—but of what, and how?" Louisa Howe and Marie Jahoda, the authors of the articles on evaluation, do not furnish easy answers to the difficult questions of "what" and "how," but they do clarify some of the difficulties in research procedure. They stress particularly the relationship among various objectives and the methods by which movement toward these sometimes dissimilar objectives can be made. Dr. Howe's article concentrates upon analyzing the difficulties in various research

approaches, and Dr. Jahoda's examines "what is known and what should be known about the impact of community inflences on the mental health of the individual." Together, the articles constitute an interesting and searching analysis of research needs and problems in mental health. The appendix amplifies this material with a brief account of practical problems in the use of sample surveys.

The book has two basic weaknesses. First, the impact of the materials is somewhat nullified because the information about practices was collected in 1950 and 1951. Although practices may not have changed materially since that time, one is left with the feeling that the programs described are not quite current. Second, there seems to be no real central theme that coordinates this collection of articles. Each contributor stresses mental health but, at best, this term is, as each author emphasizes, vague and elusive. The result is that each article seems to dwell almost unduly upon the somewhat chaotic nature of the present picture of mental health activities and to accent current weaknesses, not strengths.

The reader who approaches this book hoping to find ways and means of organizing community health programs will be sorely disappointed. The time he spends in reading the book, however, will be well spent. It is one of the best and most complete analyses of current problems in mental health that has appeared. The reader may regret only that the authors could not have been more constructive in their suggestions.

BEVERLEY WOLF
Teachers College, Columbia

Training Curriculum Leaders for Cooperative Research, by A. Harry Passow, Matthew B. Miles, Stephen M. Corey, and Dale C. Draper. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 158 pp. $1.35.

This pamphlet is an account of ten training conferences of twenty public school people and staff members of the Horace Mann—Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation. The two-day conferences, called "Continuing Curriculum Research Conferences," held at monthly intervals, were designed by the Institute as a method of increasing competence in cooperative curriculum research. Chapters I and II present the authors' beliefs about cooperative curriculum research and conference conditions, Chapters III through VII describe the conferences, and Chapters VIII and IX deal with conference outcomes.

Persons interested in conference procedure will find the publication helpful in its detailed descriptions of the varied procedures used in this program. One conference is summarized from beginning to end, with an analysis of the time devoted to each type of activity. The various conference activities, the work by teams from school systems, the records of attendance, participation, and time schedules, and the methods of obtaining evidence for planning and evaluation are fully reported.

The eight training needs identified as a basis for conference activities were as follows: building cooperatively the group's agenda or work; providing chairmanship for the group; dealing with "hidden agenda" (non-verbalized feelings which hamper work on a task); developing sensitivity to reactions of other group members; bringing absent or new members up to date; learning techniques for getting and analyzing data; analyzing back-home problems and constructing plans to solve these problems; and conceptualizing, integrating and reinforcing learnings from the training experiences. Chapter IV, a particularly useful chapter, describes critically the conference activities planned to meet each of these needs.

The great need which exists for training leadership in cooperative research may cause some readers to hope for a more comprehensive program of training that a series of two-day conferences. But curricu-

lum workers interested in detailed treatment of alternative approaches in training programs will find here excellent material on one approach.

This reviewer was particularly impressed by the various roles staff members played and by the variety of techniques used in evaluation of the conferences, singly and as a series. The Appendix reproduces seven evaluation instruments, several of which may be suggestive to other conference planners: three post-meeting evaluation forms, one post-meeting inventory of reactions to statements about evaluation procedures, one interview schedule, a "Change Index" (to changes in attitudes, feelings, ideas, and beliefs; ways of behaving; skills; techniques), and a checklist on "Factors Affecting CCRC Behavior." A summary of statistical findings from the last two items is also included in the Appendix.

"What the Staff learned about Training" (Chapter IX) might be particularly illuminating for other groups interested in this approach. The reviewer is impressed by the generally forthright nature of staff evaluations and by the absence of extravagant generalizations or claims as to the efficacy or application of specific procedures. Hence it is recommended that planners of training conferences in general, as well as of those primarily for cooperative curriculum research, consult this report for its thoroughgoing account of a promising approach in training programs.

WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER
University of Miami (Florida)

The Basic College of Michigan State, edited by Thomas H. Hamilton and Edward Blackman. East Lansing, The Michigan State College Press, 1955. ix + 127 pp. $2.75.

This short volume has a lot to say. According to one of the editors, its purpose is to indicate briefly "the rationale of the Basic College of Michigan State College, the objectives of the courses which make up this program in general education, and the ways in which the achievement of the objectives is attempted." At a time when attention is being drawn both to the need for more effective general education and to mounting college enrollments, this book is especially pertinent.

In his brief foreword, President John A. Hannah terms Michigan State College (which has become Michigan State University since publication of this volume) the first of the land grant colleges. He indicates that the original Morrill Act provided for "practical education," but also aimed "to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life." Thus the organization of the Basic College unit within Michigan State College in 1944 was a logical step forward toward requiring all students to experience the broadening and liberalizing effects of at least one course each in communication skills, natural science, social science, and the humanities.

But these courses were not to be merely old-line introductory or survey courses operated by the departments concerned. Rather, each student (during his freshman and sophomore years) was to spend approximately half his time in "integrated, basic courses" in the areas mentioned. The other half would be spent in introductory, exploratory, and elective courses taught by the specialized colleges of MSC.

While somewhat comparable programs have been started elsewhere both before and since 1944, the MSC Basic College appears to be notable in its size (over 8,000 students in the fall of 1954), and in the heterogeneity of its student population. It becomes apparent from this report that, as in various other institutions, many Michigan State students do not complete a four-year—or sometimes even a two-year—program. Others arrive on campus with an immediate desire to enter one of the several specialized colleges. Still others enroll with little knowledge of future plans. For those with definite career plans, a logical arrangement involves joint affiliation both with the

Basic College and with the school in which specialization will take place. For the others, the Basic College serves as an exploratory area in which an individual may help find himself through counseling, evaluation, and other services.

Concerning teaching staff—the heart of any education endeavor—the Basic College approach is almost unique. Instead of having representatives from the various departments staff the general education courses, the Basic College now has its own separate faculty. The original plan of sharing about half of its teachers with other parts of MSC is now almost completely abandoned. "Duality of responsibility, double committee work, divided attention, and the fact that the demands of Basic College teaching proved to be such that in most cases they were incompatible with other duties are the reasons for this development," according to Dean Thomas Hamilton of the College, one of the editors. (p. 20)

In faculty selection, attention is paid to intelligence, wide range of interests, "breadth of outlook [which] will welcome the opportunity to cross traditional academic lines and work in an interdisciplinary field." A sufficient number of faculty have been appointed so that the important instructional work at hand is not relegated to graduate assistants, nor is class size gigantic. Average class size, it is reported, ranges from 46 (Social Science) to 13 (Improvement Services, which are essentially remedial).

Examinations in the Basic College, one finds, center in a Board of Examiners. Initially, all students took a comprehensive exam on each basic course at the end of the *third* term of the course. (MSC is on a quarter system, with each major course running for three quarters.) While course instructors reviewed the exams, the actual construction, administering, and assigning of marks—which were the final ones for the course—were in the hands of the Board. A modification of this procedure now is based 50 per cent on the instructor's grade and 50 per cent on the examination at the end of *each* term.

Since this volume is almost entirely descriptive, one's critical reaction to it is actually reaction to the program delineated. Concerning the central examining board mentioned above, there is room for both praise and doubt. Harried instructors pressed for time to make up truly effective exams might welcome such a plan. So would those annoyed by what appear to be student "apple-polishing" techniques. On the other hand, there may also be faculty members who would not be sure that all they are attempting to teach can be measured in short-answer tests administered by a central agency.

One is impressed by the fact that areas for further research and development are alluded to frequently. Paul L. Dressel, head of the Board of Examiners, identifies several unsolved problems: (1) What should a grade signify? (2) Should acceleration be encouraged, and if so, should credit be given for knowledge a student demonstrates even if he hasn't taken a course in it? (3) What will a current study indicate about student reaction to the Basic College? and (4) How can thinking skills be developed and measured? To these Dean Hamilton adds (5) Concern for maximum stimulation for the very able, and (6) More effective utilization of the total environment of the student—cultural events, dormitory life, and other areas—as part of general education.

While *The Basic College of Michigan State* is quite naturally a volume reporting with pride the various accomplishments of this seemingly thriving organization, the authors' ability to indicate areas for future improvement is heartening. One can look forward with interest to the results of future research and other activity. It is appropriate that the Centennial theme of Michigan State makes effective use of Lincoln's words: "It is for us the living . . . to be dedicated here to the unfinished work. . . ."

E. K. Fretwell
Teachers College, Columbia

To the Editor
TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

Reconstructionism as an educational philosophy is so much in process of formulation that I hope others besides myself have been stimulated by the two discussions of it that appeared in your January, 1956, issue. Since, quite understandably, I support much of the interpretation offered by Professor Van Cleve Morris in "The Other-Directed Man," I wish to direct my attention to the more critical "Some Questions of Social Reconstructionism," by Professor James E. McClellan.

First, the term "social reconstructionism" that he uses throughout is inaccurate if Dr. McClellan is talking about my version of this philosophic position (and it is obvious that he is). I have never used his term at any time, for the reason that reconstructionism, as I view it, is by no means merely a social theory. It is also, among other things, psychological, economic, political, religious, scientific, and esthetic. The social dimension is of great importance, certainly. But I am primarily concerned with the reconstruction of a multidimensional culture which, left unreconstructed, may collapse of its own frustrations, conflicts, and obsolescences. Culture is a great deal more than society, as Dr. McClellan, with his concern for linguistic precision, should agree. I am at a loss to understand by what authority, since he is addressing himself chiefly to my interpretation, he chooses to amend the operational term I have chosen to symbolize it.

Second, I fail to understand the import of the first two-thirds of Dr. McClellan's article, since the last third has the effect of largely if not entirely negating it. In the first two-thirds he is saying that such a reconstructionist question as "Can the school in America be used as an instrument of social change?" is of a different logical order from such a question as "Should the handle of a pruning hook be used as an instrument of corporal punishment?" Having proved that it is of a different logical order, he then proceeds to argue that the former as well as the latter question is nevertheless meaningful and educationally significant. Indeed, he readily admits that such educational questions as the former can produce "overarching hypotheses" that give "direction to empirical research of a more precise kind." But this is, of course, the reconstructionist position too. The reconstructionist considers all of his convictions about the role of education as a creative cultural agent to be open to further examination and subject to modification or even repudiation: any general educational question becomes fruitful only as it is crystallized into more specific questions that can then be tested in the practice of actual schools and communities. I have endeavored to illustrate this kind of climbing down the "abstraction ladder" both by published experiments of my own to which I refer Dr. McClellan, and by various designs for educational testing that are proposed in such books as my *Toward a Reconstructed Philosophy of Education.*

Third, the conclusion of Dr. McClellan's article compels me to inquire whether it is really an ostensible lack of linguistic precision and empirical testability in reconstructionist theory that bothers him most, or a lack of concern by the teaching profession "right now" for the kind of questions that the reconstructionist chooses to ask and, as far as possible, answer. The two kinds of concern are obviously at least as different as those about "social change" and "pruning hooks." Surely it is legitimate to raise searching questions about the role of education, even at a time when most teachers and administrators may not be conspicuously disturbed by them. As a matter of fact, this very lack of disturbance may be the best possible reason for raising such questions, for investigating the causes of complacency, and for attempting to find answers by experimental means in specific ways. To argue otherwise comes perilously near to the hoary view that "whatever is" provides the "right" questions to ask. If Dr. McClellan regards broad but nonetheless urgent questions about the power of education to reconstruct the culture to be merely

"tiresome," and if this attitude is at all typical of our younger leaders, one should be troubled indeed to imagine what the role of the public schools in a time of world turmoil may turn out to be. Fortunately, however, as Dr. Morris reveals in his companion article, Dr. McClellan's attitude may be far from typical.

THEODORE BRAMELD
Visiting Professor, University of Puerto Rico.

REPLY TO PROFESSOR BRAMELD

Professor Brameld's response to my article is quite gratifying, for it indicates that at least one person understood the main ideas I was trying to communicate. Since I was writing in a relatively little used mode of speech, this fact of communication is especially encouraging.

To his first objection, I readily accede. My apologies. Please substitute "Some Social Questions of Reconstructionism" for the original title. His second point is hard for me to understand. Why is there any negation of the distinction of logical orders of questions by the argument that both orders are meaningful, albeit in different ways? If Professor Brameld's demonstrated sophistication in these logical orders were ubiquitous, the arguments would be superfluous but not, so far as I can see, contradictory.

Professor Brameld's third point introduces issues that cannot be answered briefly. I should like to ask, not rhetorically but sincerely, "by what authority" can one assert that certain big questions concerning education ought to be given attention and others ignored? The expression "time of world turmoil" is compelling, but it does not imply a moral obligation to neglect the really current interests and concerns of teachers and administrators in favor of "tiresome" questions. Is this merely a matter of attitudinal disagreement, or is there some authority to which we can appeal?

JAMES E. MCCLELLAN

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